The Nation.

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The Week.

It was made evident in the first session of the Senate after the holiday recess that the Administration policy of secrecy and suppression regarding the course of affairs in the Philippines can no longer be pursued with impunity. When Mr. Pettigrew of South Dakota offered a resolution directing the Secretary of War to furnish the Senate information as to the circumstances under which the present war with the Filipinos began in February, 1899, four Republicans were promptly on their feet to object. Mr. Pettigrew is so little respected, and has such small influence in the Senate, that any protest from him against the smothering of the proposed inquiry would have counted for little. But it was a very different matter when that veteran Republican leader, Mr. Hoar of Massachusetts, denounced what he termed an "attempt to throttle Senators" in their efforts to obtain information concerning the "deplorable conditions" which have existed in the Philippines for some time past; and gave notice that, if there was to be an absolute suppression of all requests for information concerning the war with the Filipinos, he should object to the taking up of other matters during the morning hour when such resolutions are pending. This declaration of independence served its purpose, and forced Mr. Aldrich, who had led in the objections to the Pettigrew resolution, to disclaim any intention to suppress information.

The policy of hush about the Philippines ought to have been applied to official documents before the attempt was made to enforce it in the Senate. Gen. Otis's report, for example, throws a glaring light upon the blundering which led to the war with the Filipinos. When the President's illegal proclamation of December a year ago reached him, he was thunderstruck—not at its illegality, but at its unwisdom. So what did he do but edit it! Here is his own account of the matter:

> "After fully considering the President's proclamation and the temper of the Tagalos with whom I was daily discussing political problems and the friendly intentions of the United States Government towards them, I concluded that there were certain words and expressions therein, such as 'sovereignty,' 'right of cession,' and those which directed immediate occupation, etc., which, though most admirably employed and tersely expressive of actual conditions, might be advantageously used by the Tagalo war party to incite widespread hostilities among the natives. The ignorant classes had been taught to believe that certain words, as 'sovereignty,' 'protection,' etc., had peculiar meaning disastrous to their welfare and significant of future political domination, like that from which they had recently been freed."

Accordingly, Gen. Otis took the liberty, only to be justified by his acute apprehensions respecting the military situation, of modifying the President's proclamation, which he saw would be a firebrand. But, unluckily, Gen. Miller at Iloilo printed the document entire, with the amazing result, as he telegraphed Otis, that "the people laugh at it." Then from Iloilo the proclamation in its unexpurgated form found its way to Luzon, and Gen. Otis plaintively records that "it was not long before it was delivered at Malolos, and was the object of venomous attack." Think of it—laughter and venom for that humane offer of President McKinley not to kill the Filipinos if they would be good and submit to him! They certainly deserve no mercy after that.

As the only member of either branch of Congress who has been in the Philippines, Senator Beveridge of Indiana was sure of an attentive hearing when he rose on Tuesday to defend the Administration's policy. Mr. Beveridge came into prominence in his State as a "boy orator," and there has never been a more striking illustration of a man "inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity" than he now presents. For "spread-eagleism" the Senate chamber has never heard anything to equal that part of his speech in which he turns seer, and interprets the meaning of expansion as a policy in national and world development.

We have been waiting for the imperialist press to go into transports over Gov. Leary's order abolishing slavery in the island of Guam, but we have waited in vain. The reason, however, we can make a shrewd guess at. After defending the toleration of slavery in the Sulu islands, you cannot suddenly rise up and bless an American Governor who breaks out in noble indignation at the spectacle of slavery under the United States flag, and boldly declares it in violation of the Constitution of the United States. The dilemma is an awkward one. If Gov. Leary is right, Gen. Otis and President McKinley are wrong; if they are correct in their view of the legal right of slavery to exist under our flag in the Sulus, then he is all at sea in maintaining that it has no such right in Guam. There cannot be two rules of law for like cases. And if it is not our law or our Constitution that applies, but the *Outlook's* "Mosaic dispensation," we submit that it is just as good for Guam as it is for the Sulus. Gov. Leary appears to be a sort of Sancho Panza ruling his island. Some of his orders regulating agriculture and domestic life have a distinctly comic flavor. But this decree of his abolishing slavery, even in the mild form of peonage, is no joke. Nor is it a joke that the American people are now so humiliated by the existence of slavery under their jurisdiction in the Sulus that they cannot even applaud its abolition in Guam.

Senator Foraker of Ohio is going to force consideration of another question which is only less important than our course in the Philippines. This is the relation that Porto Rico shall occupy to the United States. From the very nature of the case, no excuse for maintaining the present military administration can long be found in an island where there is no danger of outbreaks. A civil government of some sort must be established at an early day. Even the great temporizer in the White House admitted in his message to Congress last month that some legislation should be enacted at this session with reference to Porto Rico. Mr. Foraker on January 3 introduced a bill which would establish a form of government that would treat the island like one of our existing Territories. He proposes that the President shall appoint a Governor, a Supreme Court, seven heads of departments, and five native citizens, who, with the Governor and department heads, shall constitute the upper branch of the Legislature; that the lower house, consisting of thirty-five members, shall be elected by the citizens of the island; that the latter shall also elect a delegate to Congress, who shall have a seat but no vote—as has always been the rule with our Territories; and that the Constitution and laws of the United States, so far as the latter are locally applicable, shall be extended to Porto Rico, with the consequent prohibition of export duties and with free trade between Porto Rico and the United States proper.

We continue to receive circulars from the Planters' and Farmers' Association of Cuba, asking for assistance in procuring the repeal of the "Foraker amendment," which prohibits the granting of any charters or franchises in the island while it continues under our military government. In the last one so received we are reminded that every State in the American Union has upon its statute-book a law permitting franchises to be taken by persons needing them by simply filing a schedule with the names, purposes, and amount of capital stock of the incorporators. Yet Cuba, just emerging from centuries of Spanish oppression, cannot get a charter for a mortgage bank to lend her farmers the capi-

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tal to rehabilitate their cane-fields. This is certainly a trying situation. If only financial considerations were taken account of, nothing could be said in favor of the Foraker amendment. But the political consideration is involved in the financial one. The Cuban papers which favor an independent government are strongly opposed to a repeal of the *ley Foraker*. *La Discusión*, for example, urgently insists that no charters should be granted in Cuba except by "a government or entity freely chosen by the Cuban people." If franchises are granted by the military commander, there will be a rush of the capitalist and speculating class to the United States authorities, and gradually the feeling of independence and the desire for it will be sapped, and the resistance to annexation will be lessened in both countries.

The appointments of Gens. Young, MacArthur, and Ludlow to brigadier-generalships in the regular army are the most interesting in years to army officers. Not since 1873, when George Crook was similarly promoted, have any officers below the rank of colonel in the regular army been given these coveted places. But Gens. MacArthur and Ludlow were not only lieutenant-colonels when advanced, but staff lieutenant-colonels as well, and it would be necessary to go back to civil-war times to find similar cases. For decades past, line officers alone have been deemed eligible for promotion to the line generalships, and a staff officer could hope to become a brigadier-general only by appointment as head of his own corps. That this departure from well-established tradition will create considerable ill-feeling among the forty-two colonels of cavalry, artillery, and infantry of longer service who have been jumped, cannot be doubted. At the same time, no one will deny that these places have been bestowed upon men who have thoroughly earned them. The services of MacArthur and Young in the Philippines would have won similar, if not greater recognition, in any foreign service, while Gen. Ludlow's work in Havana has been of a far higher and better kind. It is an interesting and extraordinary fact that the last-named officer was nominated to and confirmed by the Senate for a brigadier-generalship which does not become vacant until January 21, on the retirement of Gen. Anderson. We do not recall another case where appointment was made to an office before it was vacated.

The greater part of the speech which Senator Aldrich made in reporting back the currency bill of the House with the finance committee's amendments will receive the hearty concurrence of all the advocates of sound money. There was little that could be called new in what he said, but the saying of it in the Senate by authority of one of its committees is so opposed to the custom of that body that it arrests attention at once. It is a stroke upon the clock of time signalizing that the United States is about to put the great question of the standard of value beyond further dispute, and address itself to other issues. Mr. Aldrich did well to expose the sham and pretence of those who profess to believe that the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 by the United States alone would have the effect of lifting the value of silver up to the level of gold. He characterized this belief as either dishonesty or insanity. He said that the passage of the bill before the Senate would not disable this country from joining in a future conference to promote international bimetallism. That is quite true, but it puts international bimetallism *hors de combat* just the same. There is no discernible movement in the world to call another such conference. All the movements are in the direction of the single gold standard. Russia has adopted that standard and has actually resumed specie payments. India, by declining the allurements of the Wolcott Commission, has ranged herself under the same standard. Austria, in spite of her political difficulties of recent years, has steadily pursued the course which she laid out for herself in 1893. And now the United States, which has not departed from the gold standard at any moment since specie payments were resumed in 1879, makes public declaration that "the standard unit of value shall, as now, be the dollar, and shall consist of 25.8 grains of gold nine-tenths fine." This is practically giving notice to the world that we have no further desire to join in conferences to bring about a change of standard.

The bill to amend the Interstate Commerce law recently introduced by Senator Cullom, it is understood, was prepared in the office of the Interstate Commerce Commission. It has been submitted, in a more or less formal manner, at meetings of commercial associations, where commendatory votes have been obtained. Railroad managers do not appear to have participated in the preparation of it, although a comparison between its terms and those of the bill presented by the Commission last year shows that modifications have been made in certain features that were then especially criticised. The bill, as now presented, may be regarded as an official proposition, and it will doubtless be made the basis of any legislative action that may be had during the present session of Congress. It therefore should receive the utmost publicity and the most careful consideration, both in respect to its general scope and its details. The Interstate Commerce act, since its passage in 1887, has been amended in a few comparatively unimportant particulars. The bill now introduced proposes to rewrite eight sections of the act and to add two new sections. The changes proposed are important, affecting as they do the short-haul section, the publicity section, the punishment section, the commission-procedure sections, the enforcement section, and the annual-report section. The additions proposed provide for a national classification of freight and for rehearings by the Commission. The important fifth section, which prohibits pooling agreements, is not affected. No attempt is made to relieve the roads from the difficulties created by the interpretation which has been given to the anti-Trust law. Intimations, however, have been thrown out that a section authorizing pooling and other agreements may perhaps be added in committee, provided that the language of such amendment be guarded to the satisfaction of the Commission, and that the desires of the Commission as now formulated be not interfered with.

The measure is entirely one-sided; it contains only regulative features. It does not in the least attempt to protect carriers in their rights, or to assist them in their efforts to transact the business of transportation in conformity with the requirements of the law. This course of procedure seems unfortunate, and likely to prevent, rather than to promote, the attainment of much-needed amendments of the law. It is not usual for a public body, in proposing a legislative measure, to ignore deliberately the interests of an important section of its constituents. In the present case this has been done, and it seems like asking a good deal to expect the roads to unite cordially in action to make the proposed reconstruction of the statute a practical success. Certainly this result cannot be arrived at unless the propositions of the Commission are all inherently just, and unless other necessary features are to be welcomed as proper to be incorporated in the bill.

The announcement that a majority of the Senate committee on privileges and elections will make an adverse report upon Quay's claim to a seat by the appointment of the Governor of Pennsylvania is no surprise. All the members of that committee sat in the Senate when a somewhat similar question came up during the last Congress on an appointment by the Governor of Oregon (all but two of the nine having been on the committee then), and they stand now where they stood before. Mr. Hoar, the leader of the minority in the committee, has always been a stout defender of the Governor's power in the premises, and, of course, it is a question of principle with him. He is quite right in the indigna-

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tion which he expresses against those people who have written letters begging him not to stand by the appointee of the Pennsylvania Governor because that appointee is a "bad man," while it was right for him to sustain a similar exercise of power by the Governor of Oregon when the latter named a good man. This represents the same attempt to elevate prejudice over Constitutional duty, as a Senator sees that duty, which was tried, unhappily with success, at the other end of the capitol last month, when Representatives who believed that Roberts of Utah came with credentials which entitled him to a seat, pending an investigation, refused to admit him because there was a popular clamor for his exclusion, without regard to either Constitution or precedents.

The champions of Quay say that the fact that a majority of the committee on elections and privileges is against him will have no effect upon the result, when the final vote shall be taken in the Senate. Nevertheless, it is true that it is a decided advantage to have any proposition come before either branch of Congress with a favorable report; and if the majority in this case had been for Quay, his friends would have claimed, and with good reason, that the "moral effect" would help him decidedly. It would make it easier for new members to take the Quay side of the controversy, and less difficult for old members who are on record against the Governor's power to shift their ground. The only hope for the Pennsylvania boss from the start has been that there would be many such changes of base, since without them there would be an assured majority against him. So far the only Senators willing to confess that they will turn around on grounds of personal friendship are Quay's man Penrose of Pennsylvania and Carter of Montana. There are few others who are open to the suspicion of joining a band with such leaders. Everything consequently now indicates that Quay cannot get his seat by Gov. Stone's appointment, and if he shall fail in this, his prestige at home will be gone. Indeed, there are already signs that the Republican politicians of Pennsylvania have concluded that his power is broken, and the rats are beginning to desert the sinking Quay ship.

Mr. Bryan stands by his colors. It has been hard work to maintain that the country was being ruined by the gold standard and the money power during these years of prosperity, but the recent collapse of prices in Wall Street furnishes an argument. In his speech at Omaha on Monday, he assured his hearers that those who studied the money question in 1896 foresaw the danger threatened by the gold standard, and pointed out that its permanent establishment would involve us in every financial disturbance accruing in Europe. Behold now, a few victories by the Boers have so frightened the bankers that they have suppressed their sympathy for a struggling republic, and are hoping for the extension of the authority of a queen. If a little war like this nearly brings on a panic, what would happen if war should break out between two gold-standard countries of the first class? The moral of this is, have nothing to do with the gold standard and be financially independent. It might seem a proper reply to this argument to say that the financial consequences of a war between two great Powers would be very much the same whether they used the gold or silver standard, but doubtless Mr. Bryan would retort that there are no first-class Powers having the silver standard, and hence there could be no war between them. Perhaps if we could make sure of enduring peace by adopting the silver standard, we might be tempted to try the experiment, but the danger would be that other Powers might do the same thing, and then we should be worse off than we are now. The argument that we ought to adopt the silver standard in order to escape financial disturbance is so absurd as to make it plain that Mr. Bryan has almost exhausted his ammunition.

The conference of leading Populists from a number of States in the West and Southwest at Lincoln, Neb., on Friday simply proved what had been clearly enough foreshadowed before—that the managers of that party heartily favor Bryan's renomination, and are ready to coöperate to that end, in whatever may be the most effective way, with their fellows in the so-called Democratic party. In point of fact, there is no longer any difference of principle between the managers of these two organizations. There is an element in the Populist party which was not satisfied with the Chicago platform of 1896. It is composed of sincere but narrow and ignorant men, who believe in an irredeemable paper currency, and "lots of it," and who cared for the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1 only as a short step on the long road which they wanted to travel. This "Middle-of-the-Road" element would like now to nominate an independent Populist ticket on a platform of its own, the cornerstone of which should be the issue of greenbacks without limit. But these people have no leaders with the slightest influence. The professional politicians of the Populist party know that there would be nothing in such a campaign for them. Their only possible chance is in another fusion with the so-called Democrats who supported Bryan in 1896, and who want him for the leader again in 1900. These professional Populist politicians absolutely control the machinery of their party, and they will run it in Bryan's interest. The same class among the so-called Democrats who have accepted Bryanism control the machinery of that organization, and will run it to the same end, with hardly any more effective opposition from the element which is tired of the leader and of his cause than the Populist politicians will encounter from the "Middle-of-the-Road" element.

Gov. Pingree's administration in Michigan, admittedly a failure in the matter of the promised changes in the method of taxing railroad and other corporate property, on which issue he was elected, bids fair to end now in disgrace through the peculation of his subordinates in the military department. There, as elsewhere, war provided the opportunity for designing men to enrich themselves at the State's expense. As disclosed by the investigation of the grand jury, the officials in charge of the military department, under the pretence that the soldiers to be furnished to the United States for the war with Spain needed new equipment, entered into a conspiracy with a manufacturing concern, whereby the old equipment, bought from the State for about $12,000, was resold to the State for $60,000, the conspirators sharing the stealings. One of the indicted parties is a fugitive from the State, and several others are awaiting trial. One of them held very confidential relations with the Governor; and although there is nothing to indicate that the latter was cognizant, in the slightest degree, of the stealing, the developments must needs smirch the Administration.

Few who followed the testimony before the French High Court expected that the charges of conspiracy to overthrow the republic would be sustained. Accordingly, it is no surprise to find most of the defendants acquitted. Conspiracy is a crime notoriously hard to prove in any court. Evidence in plenty was adduced that Déroulède and his fellows had indulged in the wildest kind of talk, had held suspicious relations with Socialist and Royalist plotters, and had in general conducted themselves like men who wished to be taken for dangerous conspirators. But proof of overt acts of treason was lacking, and concerted treason was still further from being demonstrated in court. This failure to convict may discourage the Government from prosecuting Gen. Mercier, as it has been hinted that it would soon do for his part in the Dreyfus affair. That doughty soldier is now standing for a vacant seat in the Senate, counting upon Royalist and anti-Semite support, and is evidently ready to play the part of Boulanger II., if the way opens.

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THE GOVERNMENT DEPOSITS.

The recent outcry against Secretary Gage for alleged favoritism to one large bank in depositing the surplus funds of the Treasury, brings to notice afresh a serious danger in the financial situation and equally in the political. We need not go back to Gen. Jackson's time to learn what enmities may be stirred up by adroit politicians against banks, and how fatal such enmity may become to parties and public men. The bank war of Jackson's time culminated in the removal of the Government's deposits from the Bank of the United States, and their transfer to the so-called "pet banks" of that period, and later to the independent Treasury system, which is still in force. The independent Treasury system means that the Government itself takes care of its own collections and disbursements of money without the aid or intervention of banks. At first sight this seems the proper thing for a government to do. Private individuals make their own collections and disbursements; why should not the Government do likewise? But private individuals deposit their surplus money in banks. They do not carry in their pockets or keep in their private safes more than they need for daily disbursements. The Government, it is true, is now equipped with the apparatus for taking care of its surplus funds. It has vaults and offices more capacious and commodious than any private bank whatsoever. Why should it not receive, store, and pay out its own funds regardless of the banks? Why should it not continue to do what it set out to do when the independent Treasury was first established?

If the Government's collections and disbursements were made in equal times and amounts, there would be no reason for storing a dollar of its money in any place except its own vaults. If, however, its collections grow to an enormous mass, creating a corresponding vacuum in the money market, then it is obvious that there ought to be some method of avoiding contraction and returning this idle money to the channels of business. This goes without saying, and the only question is how the equilibrium which has been disturbed by the operations of the Treasury shall be restored. As the *Financial Chronicle* says in a recent article on this subject, the business community want no favors of the Treasury in this matter, but simply ask it to keep "hands off." In all other countries, all the public money is deposited in banks as soon as it is received by the collecting officers, and is drawn out when wanted by the checks of the disbursing officers. Thus the surplus or balance on hand at any time is at the service of the business community in the form of loans and discounts like the balances of private depositors. No tightness of money can ever arise from the Government's arbitrary withdrawal of funds from business circles.

The state of the Treasury, present and prospective, is such that early attention must be given to the disposal of the surplus. Prosperous business now insures the largest income that the taxes are capable of yielding at any given time, and the war-revenue act is now at its best. Although the war in the Philippines is not likely to come to a sudden end, it is not likely to be as expensive as heretofore, but in any case there will probably be a surplus during the ensuing twelve months of $100,000,000. It is estimated that this surplus will reach $60,000,000 about the time that the political campaign becomes hot next fall. If this money is locked up in the Treasury, it may cause a financial crisis. If it is deposited in banks, as was done by Secretary Fairchild in the midst of the campaign of 1888, then the present Secretary of the Treasury will probably be subjected to the same kind of ignorant or malignant slander that was then heaped upon Mr. Fairchild, importing that he was governed by political motives in the selection of banks to receive the overflow of funds from the Treasury. If he goes into the market to buy bonds he will run up the price, and subject himself to the charge of favoring the bondholders and bond speculators.

In view of these facts and prospects, the *Financial Chronicle* suggests that Congress pass a law requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to deposit each week in depository banks all the money collected by the Government in excess of its current expenses; Congress to fix at the same time the security that shall be required for the same. The security now required is Government bonds, with a margin of ten per cent. computed not on the market value, but on the par value of the bonds. This is considerably more security than private borrowers are required to give when they borrow from banks, and the *Chronicle* thinks that it might properly be fixed by law at something less. The main point of the suggestion, however, is to take from the Secretary the discretion and responsibility which he now exercises of depositing or not depositing the surplus in banks, and of determining the margin of security required. Of course, the Secretary, exposed as he is to suspicion and blackguardism whatever he may do, or even if he does nothing, will welcome such a law. All his successors in office will be glad to be protected by it, and the business community ought to be equally so, since such a law would be a guarantee against unnecessary contraction of the currency. There could be no contraction due to the operations of the Treasury that could not be relieved by the deposit of bonds as security. Any contraction not severe enough to call out this kind of security would not be intolerable. We all look forward to a time when we shall have no war on our hands, when the national debt shall be paid, and when we may reduce the taxes to the measure of the expenditures. Then the independent Treasury system may again vindicate its *raison d'être*. At present, however, something ought to be done to relieve the strain which it produces, and we see nothing better than the *Financial Chronicle's* plan for meeting the crisis.

GOV. ROOSEVELT ON TAXATION.

A large part of Gov. Roosevelt's message this year relates to taxation; and while the opinions expressed are rather indecisive, they are not more so than those of the best authorities we have on that subject. State and local taxation remains, as it has been during the past fifty years, a great puzzle for both statesmen and economists. The American principle that all rights should be shared equally and all burdens be borne equally, has been translated to mean that all property should be taxed equally. Nothing seems fairer than this. Long ago it took the form of the general property tax, which was embodied in most of the State constitutions, but was somehow left out of that of New York. The principle underlying it was, however, embodied in the State law, but was gradually minimized in practice. The general property tax requires that all property shall first be valued, and that then Mr. A shall pay the rate which the Legislature finds necessary, say 2 per cent., on the value of his real estate, that Mr. B shall pay it on that of his horses and wagons, Mr. C on his merchandise, Mr. D on his railway and bank stock or bonds, Mr. E on his cash, and so on through the list.

It was early discovered that this fair-seeming plan could be carried out only as regards property which could be found and estimated by the officer appointed to make the valuation. Real estate could always be found. Some kinds of personal property could be found and valued with more or less accuracy and fairness, but a large and increasing share of personal property could not be found so as to be put upon the assessor's lists unless the owner cooperated with him. Few owners would take the necessary pains to get themselves taxed as much as they ought to be, even when they were required to make out lists of their personal property under oath. The system broke down in practice in New York, and in nearly all the States. So it has come to pass that real property is taxed more heavily than it ought to be if the principle of equality of taxation is to be observed.

When the fact became well understood that personal property in the many forms and guises which it has taken in the progress of society, and especially in stocks and bonds, could not be

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taxed with any approach to certainty and equality, the Legislature turned to the corporations themselves, and said, "Here is the source of the income which ought to, but does not, pay its share of the public expenses; here is something that resembles real estate in the fact that it cannot hide; let us tax the income at its source." Hence came the corporation tax—a reasonable tax, but one which was in some danger of being carried to excess whenever corporations should become unpopular. The facility with which they could be reached made them a tempting object to the taxing power, which is the legislative power. Up to the present time, however, it cannot be said that the corporation tax has been unduly severe in New York. The franchise tax passed at the last session of the Legislature, has not yet gone into operation, and we do not yet know whether it will prove a valuable addition to the fiscal and social apparatus of the State or not. Although the details are very complex and are not yet unravelled, there is nothing in the outlook which is in any degree discouraging. The underlying idea of the law, that a corporation enjoying a special franchise, such as the right to use a public street for a private purpose, should pay a special tax for it, is sound in principle. Whether it can be taxed as real estate is a disputed question among lawyers, but it is not likely that the courts will declare the tax unconstitutional.

The next step in the evolution of personal property is the Trust. This is a very vague term, and Prof. Clark rendered a real service to the literature of the subject when he said at the Chicago convention that a Trust is "any corporation that is big enough to be menacing." The corporations that come under this definition have naturally exercised the power which our laws and jurisprudence give them, of seeking their domicile in the States where they are taxed least. They can exercise their powers in any State of the Union, or they could do so until certain States began to pass anti-Trust laws; but, having their domicile in only one State, they have aimed to secure the minimum of taxation, if not entire exemption, in other States. Gov. Roosevelt gives much space to the subject of Trusts in his message, without presenting any clear idea of what he would do with them, or about them, till near the close of his disquisition. Here he makes two very pregnant suggestions. One is that Trusts should be subjected to the law of publicity, *i. e.*, that their financial condition, their earnings, and their operations should be open to public inspection, criticism, and possibly censure. He thinks that many of the evils complained of may be cured by the force of public opinion in this way. The suggestion is plausible, and it is sustained by experience in the treatment of railroads in Massachusetts and elsewhere. Then he adds:

> "Where a Trust becomes a monopoly, the State has an immediate right to interfere. Care should be taken not to stifle enterprise or disclose any facts of a business that are essentially private, but the State, for the protection of the public, should exercise the right to inspect, to examine thoroughly all the workings of great corporations, just as is now done with banks; and, wherever the interests of the public demand it, it should publish the results of its examination. Then, if there are inordinate profits, competition or public sentiment will give the public the benefit in lowered prices; and if not, the power of taxation remains."

Yes, the power of taxation remains, and there is no danger that it will not be exercised. The power of the corporations to control the Legislature through political bosses will also remain, and the struggle for such control is likely to become more momentous with the progress of time. The Governor has done well to bring these subjects up for discussion. They would force themselves to the front soon even if he should leave them alone.

"A DAY OF HUMILIATION."

A widespread demand has been made in England for the appointment of a day of national humiliation, fasting, and prayer. The London *Times* has printed columns of letters from indignant people who want to know what the civil and church authorities are thinking of not to have called upon the people to prostrate themselves before the Almighty, now that his displeasure has been so clearly shown in the reverses which have befallen the British arms in South Africa. It might seem that every man is at liberty to go off and humiliate himself all alone—go into his closet, shut the door, and pray to the Father who seeth in secret. But no, what is wanted is national humiliation and supplication. Hence the impatient cry for the Queen, or the Archbishop of Canterbury, or Lord Salisbury, or the Commander of the Forces, or the newspapers—somebody, anyhow—to name a day for the nation to put on sackcloth and ashes.

Nothing has been done, however, and it is probable that nothing will be done. The difficulties are too numerous and great. It is doubtful if the Nonconformists could be got to humble themselves on a day named by the Church of England authorities, or vice-versa. And the civil rulers will surely be slow to move. It would look too much like calling upon the people to pray God to deliver them from the disasters into which the folly of their Government had brought them. This would be too inconveniently of the nature of a Liberal election placard (and dissolution cannot be long adjourned) for a Conservative Ministry to issue it. So we think that, however richly entitled to a day of humiliation England may deem herself, no day formally and officially so called will be set apart.

And is it not true that devout Englishmen would find a good many awkward questions rising in their minds if such a day were to be appointed? Would they be beating their breasts and crying out "Miserere nobis," simply because their armies had been whipped, or because they had been fighting in a bad cause? What does the Divine displeasure mean when expressed in a lost battle? If the English had won, would that have shown that they were men after God's own heart? Then what are we to say of the Boers, who did win? These are but specimens of the moral and religious perplexities which arise as soon as a nation at war begins to feel it is losing because it has been forgetting God. Perhaps it forgot him when it began the war. And the complication becomes simply terrible when the war is against so notoriously pious a people as the Boers, who hold prayer-meetings in their camps, go to battle singing hymns, and devoutly ascribe every victory to the good hand of God upon them.

Then, again, if England is to repent in dust and ashes, it would be necessary to specify what for. Repentance is good for the soul only when it ceases to be general and comes right down to the facts. Here would be fresh dangers. All the Liberals would abase themselves before the Most High for belonging to a country which had tolerated a Conservative Government. Imagine that devout churchman, Sir William Harcourt, making his confession; would it not surely run: "Lord, have mercy on Joseph Chamberlain, miserable sinner"? If Mr. Lecky were to do an act of public penance in Dublin, what would it be most apt to be? We think it would be to humble himself before his Maker on account of the university which he represents in Parliament. He himself had described Mr. Chamberlain's conduct in terms of the severest moral condemnation; yet Trinity College, Dublin, the other day conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. upon that statesman. What is more, the Latin orator, Prof. Tyrrell, spoke of him as a man whom all looked up to with the utmost confidence ("summa fiducia suspicimus"). We think that Mr. Lecky could make out a strong argument for the belief that it was upon this act, more than upon the unlucky British soldiers, that the Divine displeasure had been visited, and that it was for this that repentance is in order.

The truth is, we suppose, that the whole order of ideas involved in the observance of days of national humiliation is ill at ease in the modern world. The heathen way, of course, was to abuse divinities, instead of worshipping them with fresh devoutness, when disasters befell. A fetish gets sadly banged about when its tribe loses a battle. Something of lurking reproach used to appear even in Old Testament addresses to Jehovah

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in times of calamity. It is possible often to detect something like it in national prostrations before God to-day. "Why has Thou cast us off?" "Do not disgrace the throne of Thy glory." We know, of course, that none of the moral difficulties we have spoken of ever cross the consciousness of thousands of devout souls who simply turn to God, in public as they do in private distresses, as a very present help in time of trouble. But when the humiliation is made official and ostentatious, all sorts of awkward things come in. In England, for example, a fixed day for public penitence, with business suspended, would necessarily be treated by multitudes as a holiday, and amusement and irreverence would be rife. And would not the most saintly minded Englishman jump from his knees to rush out and buy an "extra" with news of a great victory on the Tugela?

DELAGOA BAY.

Mr. Lucas, the historian of British Colonies, is doubtless right in saying that the opening of the Suez Canal led at first to a decided flagging of English interest in South Africa. The Cape was, historically, the half-way house to India. Naturally, therefore, it seemed to lose its critical importance to the empire when a shorter and safer route to Bombay was made possible by way of the Red Sea. But it was not long before there came a dawning sense that South Africa was not only on England's road to an empire, but was an empire in itself. The immense mineral and agricultural development of the territories accessible through Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Durban induced a quite new idea of the value of those ports. Inevitably, also, it led to a longing in the breasts of English statesmen to own the fine natural harbor of Delagoa Bay.

That possession of Portugal had been languidly contested for by Dutch and Portuguese for generations, but it did not become the prize it is until gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and until the establishment of an English protectorate over Bechuanaland made it highly desirable for England to have at least the right of access through Delagoa Bay. Desire had already found law to justify it. Great Britain, in the early seventies, claimed, by virtue of an old treaty made with a native chief in 1823, all the territory up to the southern shores of the estuary. Portugal, on the contrary, claimed both shores and as far down the coast line as 26 degrees 30 minutes south latitude. In 1872 the two Powers submitted the dispute to the arbitration of the President of the French Republic, Marshal MacMahon. He decided in 1875 wholly in favor of Portugal.

Next came English diplomatic efforts to obtain from Portugal rights of passage through Delagoa Bay, with a certain control over Portuguese territory lying between the Bay and the Transvaal. Sir Robert Morier, British Minister in Lisbon, actually succeeded in securing a treaty from Portugal in 1879, conferring such valuable privileges upon England. If she enjoyed them now, what a different face would be put upon the war! But the treaty was never ratified. The Conservative government then in power treated the whole matter with supine indifference, just as it did Sir Bartle Frere's urgent representations from the Cape, and the invaluable instrument went by the board. However, there came later the Anglo-Portuguese convention of 1891, which contained a pledge that Delagoa Bay should never be alienated to any Power except Great Britain, and also assured to England the right of preëmption of any territories south of the Zambesi within the Portuguese sphere of influence. Thus no room is left anywhere on the eastern coast of South Africa for the intervention of any European nation.

The third act in the drama is the Delagoa Bay Railway controversy and arbitration, of which we have been hearing so much. This arose in 1889. In that year Portugal seized the Delagoa Bay Railway, which had been partially built under a concession held by an American citizen, Edward MacMurdo, and annulled its charter. This act led to vigorous protests by our State Department, conjointly with the British Foreign Office (English subjects being also parties in interest), and in 1890 Portugal agreed to submit the matter to arbitration. Three jurists were named by the President of the Swiss Republic to pass upon the matter, which they have now been doing these nine years, supported in their arduous investigations by the knowledge that they were drawing a salary of $25,000 a year each. Of course, the question is an intricate one; knotty legal and engineering problems have to be solved; yet, even so, and allowing for the death of one of the arbitrators, the delay seems extraordinary. A decision was confidently expected three years ago. On July 8, 1897, Salisbury characteristically said in the Lords, in answer to an interpellation on the subject:

"If my noble friend asks me what are the prospects of the arbitration, my answer is that I am informed that the decision will speedily be given; but I am afraid I shall not carry much comfort to his mind when I tell him that the same information has been supplied to me for several years past, and also to the noble lord opposite [the Earl of Kimberley]. Therefore I fear I must leave the noble lord to such consolation as he may be able to obtain from the reflection that, after all, he is supporting a sound principle of arbitration."

The suspicion that the case was being nursed along for some ulterior end was heightened, if not confirmed, by what came to be known of the Anglo-German agreement of 1898. That England was to get Delagoa Bay in some fashion, and that Germany was to come into control of Portuguese possessions on the west coast of Africa, adjoining the German protectorate declared over Damaraland in 1884, was asserted by those having the best means of information. All doubt on the point was removed by the official note issued in Lisbon last Saturday. In that, the Portuguese Government declared that England and Germany, "having previously reached an agreement between themselves," had notified Portugal that, in case she needed a loan, they were prepared to guarantee it, and "further suggested that the loan should be guaranteed by the colonial and customs receipts." Now, as soon as the Delagoa Bay Railway decision is made, which will undoubtedly be against Portugal, and may compel her to find $15,000,000 or $20,000,000, she will need a loan. Then the benevolent English and German governments will come forward to urge the money upon her. If she will not borrow peaceably, they may force her to. The result, we suppose, will be an occupation of the Portuguese colonies in South Africa very like the English occupation of Egypt. Sovereignty may not be asserted—the fiction of Portuguese sovereignty may be kept up as solemnly as that of Turkish sovereignty in Egypt—but the colonies will be administered under foreign control. Time and method are uncertain. The Boer war may hasten or may retard the step. But that Delagoa Bay is to be under British control in the near future, is what the international map-makers undoubtedly regard as a fixed fact.

"IGNOBLE PEACE."

I noticed in the *Evening Post*, a few days ago, some merriment over Gov. Roosevelt's comments on what he calls "ignoble peace." The Jingoes who look on war as boys look on football, think that people make peace because they are tired of the fun. But the fact is, you may count upon the fingers of one hand the wars that have been concluded for any other reason than the inability of one side or the other to continue them. One of the combatants has to sue for peace, because he has no more men or money to continue the fight, so that ignoble peace is largely a creature of the Jingo imagination. These sportive men would have had England continue the contest after Lord Cornwallis's surrender, the French after the battle of Waterloo and after Sedan, and Austria after Königgrätz. People make peace when they are conquered, not for the purpose of affording sermons to Jingo historians.

If Gov. Roosevelt used the phrase "ignoble peace" properly, he would make it mean, not simply peace after war with sword and gun. It means peace after any kind of dispute between man and man. No matter what kind of difference you have with your fellow-man, if you make any concession to him which you feel in your conscience is bad for him, or bad for you, or bad for the community, in order to procure something you desire, you are guilty of "ignoble peace." Gov. Roosevelt has apparently a comic notion that everybody is

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prone to commit "ignoble peace" unless closely watched and warned. This is probably the result of excessive preoccupation with one subject. He is constantly thinking about fighting, and wishing people would fight more, and he naturally gets to thinking that it is an act of baseness to stop fighting. He wants them to fight freely in order to elucidate his theories of human society. He reminds me in this of the people in the Roman amphitheatre, who, as Seneca tells us, used to be furious with the gladiator who spoilt their fun by showing a disinclination to be killed. His belief in the general proneness to "ignoble peace" is very like the state of mind a few years ago of the opponents of marriage with a deceased wife's sister in England, who wrought themselves up into thinking that every man in England wanted to marry his deceased wife's sister, and could be saved from this enormity only by legislation and constant admonition. In like manner, one would imagine from Gov. Roosevelt's sermons that everybody in America was infected with a morbid lust for shameful submission to enemies.

But it is sadly true that there is rife in America to-day some disposition to an ignoble peace. Two-thirds of our evils, both in public and in private life, are due to it. The indisposition to have principles, to stand fast and adhere to them, to meet the enemy in the gate, and sink or swim, live or die, for what you believe will be right rather than pleasant, is the curse of the nation and the great obstacle to reform.

Gov. Roosevelt himself is one of the great illustrations of it. We believed, and thousands believed, too—thousands who were just as brave as Gov. Roosevelt—that had he brought back the laurels of San Juan to the aid of reform in this State he might have been elected Governor on a new basis, and without the aid of Platt. From a correspondence which I saw between him and Col. Waring, I judge that Col. Waring believed this, and said so to Gov. Roosevelt. But Gov. Roosevelt, knowing well what kind of man Platt was, what kind of politics he stood for, what his career for the last twenty years had been, deliberately threw the reformers overboard, and made an "ignoble peace" with said Platt. The gentlemen of the Republican Committee of Twenty-five, who exposed in January, 1896, enormous, astounding primary-election frauds committed by Platt's machine, and put their names to a report in which they said, as one of their number, Cornelius N. Bliss, asserted in a published interview at the time, that Platt's conduct was so bad that they could never again coöperate with him, "even in a good cause," and almost immediately afterwards dined with him, wined with him, and gratefully accepted office at his hands, were guilty likewise of "ignoble peace." In fact, "ignoble peace" is what Gov. Roosevelt is "conferring" about, every week, with the machine. The only reason for "conference" is to find out how little "ignoble" his peace will have to be. To say that he is conferring in the interests of good government is like saying that Luther ought to have conferred with the Pope, and that an occasional supper with the devil would be a great help to a revival preacher.

Of course, it may be said that Gov. Roosevelt had to have the help of Platt in order to be elected, but if he cannot bear defeat in a good cause, how absurd it is to keep preaching to his neighbors about "ignoble peace." We may be sure that unless we can procure the services of men who have the courage "never to submit or yield," and who have sufficient confidence and hopefulness to believe that it is the right thing which will sooner or later win, we may abandon the silly idea that we shall reform the State by "conferring" with bad men and tinkering charters and "jamming" bills.

E. L. G.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT NEW HAVEN.

NEW HAVEN, January 2, 1900.

The Archæological Institute of America has a peculiar constitution. It is formed of nine "affiliated societies" which are established in Boston, New York, and other cities. Its Council is made up of delegates from the affiliated societies and a few ex-officio members, and, at its annual May meeting in New York, listens to no learned papers, but simply transacts business. The Institute has conducted important excavations in Asia Minor, and has published two volumes of Papers with regard to these in its Classical Series; it has carried on interesting explorations and researches among the Indians in the southwestern part of the United States, and has published five volumes of Papers in its American Series; it has fostered the American Schools of Classical Studies at Athens and in Rome, which are in a sense its daughters, and maintains a fellowship in each of them; it generously supported the excavations on the site of the Argive Heræum by the School at Athens; it subsidized the *American Journal of Archæology* in its earlier series, and publishes the current series of that periodical as its own *Journal*. But the Institute hitherto has held no general meetings for the reading of papers, such as are held by the Philological Association and other scientific bodies, except that, just five years ago, it took part in the joint meeting of learned societies which was held in Philadelphia to do honor to the memory of Prof. Whitney, who had recently died. In the revision of the regulations of the Institute three years ago, provision was made for such general meetings, but none was held until this year.

The opening words of Prof. Norton's address on the first evening of the meeting held in this city December 27-29 were:

"The first general meeting of the Archæological Institute of America is a fitting celebration of the coming of age of the Institute. Twenty-one years will be complete next spring since its foundation. The hopes of its founders have not been disappointed, and this meeting is the assurance that what the Institute has up to this time accomplished is but the promise of still better achievements."

Since the main purpose of such gatherings is recognized as being not so much the imparting and acquisition of knowledge as the promotion of personal intercourse between those who are engaged in the same field of work, and stimulus and encouragement to scholars who are necessarily somewhat isolated in their investigations, even without regard to papers the meeting at New Haven would be regarded as entirely successful. The registered attendance was ninety-four, exclusive of the Yale contingent, representing forty-three institutions of learning. Never before, except perhaps at the "Whitney meeting" to which reference has been made, have so many classical scholars been gathered in America. From Harvard came Profs. Norton, Goodwin, F. W. Putnam, Smith, Warren, Wright, C. H. Moore, and Mr. G. H. Chase; from Columbia, Profs. Perry and Wheeler, and Drs. Earle, Young, and Olcott; from Princeton, Profs. Marquand, West, and Frothingham. Prof. Kelsey came from Michigan, Prof. Slaughter from Wisconsin, Prof. Fossum from Minnesota, Dr. Hussey from Chicago, and Prof. Carter from Montreal. Most of the colleges of New York and New England were represented by two professors. The weather was favorable, the building of the Yale School of Fine Arts in which the meetings were held was charmingly convenient, the doors of the Graduates' Club were hospitably thrown open, and opportunities for informal discussions abounded.

The President of the Institute, Prof. John Williams White, being absent from the country, Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, Honorary President of the Institute, delivered the principal address, on the "Work of the Archæological Institute of America"—an address which was not only graceful and highly finished, but strong and inspiring. This address, we are glad to learn, is to be published in an early number of the *Journal* of the Institute. President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University, a Vice-President of the Institute, presided at the earlier sessions.

The executive committee, which had charge of the arrangements for the meeting, had expressed the desire that the range of papers might be as broad as the constitution of the Institute, and embrace the whole field of archæology. Naturally, however, a large majority of the scholars present were classical scholars, and most of the papers presented were in the department of classical archæology. The influence of the American School at Athens was indicated by the fact that exactly half of the papers offered were by former students or professors of that school. The session of Thursday morning, presided over by Dr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia, was devoted largely to the special interests of museums, their collections and recent acquisitions, and to excavations. The executive committee has expressed the hope that the annual meeting of the Institute may bring together year after year the administrative officers of museums. On Thursday afternoon Mr. C. P. Bowditch presided, and opened the session, which was devoted chiefly to American archæology, by an exceedingly clear and forcible address on the explorations which are conducted in Central America. He was followed by a paper by Prof. G. Frederick Wright on Objects of Archæological Interest in the State of Ohio, and by an address by Prof. Putnam on Ancient Pueblos of the Chaco Cañon.

Too many papers were presented at the meeting. Though several were withdrawn when the situation became evident, and others were presented only in an abstract, no time was afforded for public discussion, and one or two whom the audience would gladly have heard to the end were obliged to stop abruptly. But, at the first meeting of such a body, this infelicity is not surprising. Naturally some papers were read which will be more intelligible in print, but, by the free use of the oxy-hydrogen lantern, the subjects which demanded illustration received it, and the attendance on the sessions remained good until the adjournment on Friday noon.

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Many results of importance were presented, but most of these were too technical to be reported here. Of the papers of general interest, perhaps those by Dr. William Hayes Ward on "Goddesses in Early Babylonian Art," by Prof. Sterrett on "Some Troglodyte Dwellings in Asia Minor," by Mr. E. P. Andrews of Cornell on "The Inscription on the East Architrave of the Parthenon," by Prof. Putnam on "Ancient Pueblos," and by Dr. Young on "Ancient Greek Dressmaking," were most enjoyed. These were all well illustrated—Dr. Young's by a manikin, as well as by views on the screen, and Mr. Andrews's by a long strip of paper which enabled him to show how he deciphered his inscription merely by means of the holes for the nails which had held the bronze letters attached to the architrave. Prof. Sterrett's account of the dwellings in the great pumice-stone cones which stand near the River Halys in Asia Minor was like a fairy-tale to many of his hearers.

This meeting was not for business in the strict sense; the management of the affairs of the Institute is left to its Council. But resolutions were adopted with regard to two matters—urging that objects of antiquity and art should be admitted to this country free of custom-house duties, and that our Government should take measures to protect and preserve the remains of an earlier civilization within our own borders—not allowing the indiscriminate digging for relics which threatens to destroy many important monuments. With this action of the general meeting of the Institute all thinking men are likely to be in accord. Y.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION IN NEW YORK.

NEW YORK, January 1, 1900.

The seventeenth annual meeting of the Modern Language Association was held at Columbia University on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday of last week. The headquarters of the association were at the Hotel Empire, at the corner of Columbus Avenue and Sixty-third Street, but there was a good deal of scattering, as was natural in a large city.

One of the most noticeable features of the meeting was the fact that this Association, which one is wont to regard as still young, is passing into the hands of a younger generation. There were a number present who were instrumental in the organization of the Association in this city some sixteen years ago, and their presence gave character and attractiveness to the gatherings, but not more than two of them read papers. With very few exceptions, the papers presented were by men whose doctor's diplomas are not five years old. There is also a marked difference between the average paper of to-day and that of fifteen years ago. At that time the subjects presented at the meetings were often of a general character, such as were more or less familiar to a considerable number of the members present; hence discussions, sometimes considerably prolonged, were usual. To-day the average paper is technical and presents the results of the writer's special study, and it is rare that other members are in a position to criticise off hand what is thus laid before them. The fact that many able papers in this way pass without discussion led to the proposition that, in future, the number of papers be reduced so as to leave more time for discussion, and that persons be selected beforehand to lead debate. But it was made clear that it was not lack of time, but a change in conditions, that has brought about the general abandonment of discussion, and it was finally decided that any attempt to stimulate it artificially would be unwise.

There was a good representation of the country as a whole. Though the central division of the Association was in session at Nashville, the South and so much of the Middle West as lies east of Chicago were well represented at the New York meeting. Lower Canada also sent delegates and two good papers. Of individual institutions, Michigan was represented by three papers, Harvard by two, not counting the address of President von Jagemann, and Bryn Mawr, Johns Hopkins, Pennsylvania, and Western Reserve by two each. There were no papers read by delegates from Brown, Cornell, Princeton, or Yale, nor, strange as it would seem, by representatives of any universities or colleges in or near New York. Two of the papers were presented by ladies: one by Dr. Gertrude Buck of Vassar on the present state of rhetorical theory, and one by Miss Julia Leavens of Brooklyn, on modern English dictionaries. Two extremes in the form of woman's activity in linguistics could hardly have been more marked; Miss Buck's clear, calm, and modest presentation of a well-considered paper contrasting sharply with the sensational dilettantism and naïve assumption of Miss Leavens.

Thirteen of the papers dealt with English themes, six with German, three with Spanish, and one each with Italian and French—in contrast with the half-dozen papers on French subjects that were presented at the previous meeting. The increase in the number of papers on Spanish subjects cannot be brought into any connection with recent history. One, on the poet Luis Barahona de Soto, was sent by Prof. Rennert of the University of Pennsylvania, but read only by title; in another, Prof. Marden of Johns Hopkins presented a capital explanation of an interesting alteration in the 'Poema de Fernan Gonzalez,' and Prof. Bourland of Michigan discussed the date of the 'Rimed Chronicle' of the Cid. Literature, or rather the history of literature, seems to be most cultivated by the members of the Society. There were eighteen such papers to four or five that dealt with philological problems, and two or three with matters of rhetoric. The nearest approach to pure literature was made by Prof. Edgar of Victoria University, Toronto, in his paper on the nature poetry of Shelley and his contemporaries. Prof. Tupper of Western University, London, Ontario, presented a study of Pope's imitations of Horace; the paper of Dr. Thorndike of Western Reserve treated of the influence of court masques on the regular drama, and of the light which this throws on the chronology of the drama of 1605-15; Mr. E. K. Putnam of Harvard discussed the Lambeth version of 'Havelok,' and Prof. McKnight of Ohio State University the Germanic elements in 'King Horn,' while Mr. Arthur Brown of Harvard presented an able paper on the Round Table before Wace. In German literature, Goethe and Hauptmann monopolized attention: Prof. Manning of Delaware College discussed the date of the first paralipomenon of 'Faust,' and Dr. Eggert of Chicago the curse-idea in "Iphigenie auf Tauris"; Dr. Schuetze of Pennsylvania read a paper on fatalism in Hauptmann's dramas.

Of the philological papers probably the most important was that of Prof. Callaway of Texas, on the appositive participle in Anglo-Saxon. Prof. B. J. Vos of Johns Hopkins discussed rime-parallelism in Old High German verse, and Prof. Kurrelmeyer of Franklin and Marshall College presented a study of the development of the type of the first person plural imperative in German—a portion of his Hopkins doctor's thesis. Prof. Hempl of Michigan explained the rise and fall of the forms *a'n't* and *ha'n't*, and Prof. F. N. Scott, also of Michigan, read an interesting paper presenting students' reminiscences of the impressions that grammatical terminology first made upon their minds. In his presidential address on Thursday evening, Prof. von Jagemann of Harvard urged that philologists should regard the discussion of matters of good usage as a part of their proper field of activity, and should not leave it to dilettanti and amateurs; but he warned them that learning alone would not suffice as an equipment—a liberal spirit and a willingness to recognize the claims of all periods and of different sections being essential.

In behalf of the committee on international correspondence, Prof. Magill of Swarthmore read an interesting report on the rapid progress made during the year in the use of this important aid in the acquisition of modern languages. Inquiries may be addressed to Prof. Magill at Swarthmore, Pa. (see also *Modern Language Notes*, vol. 14, page 48). The final presentation of the report of the Committee of Twelve on methods of instruction and the training of teachers did not elicit detailed discussion. The report is printed in full as chapter xxvi. of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897-8 (U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, 1899), and is incorporated in the Report of the committee on College Entrance Requirements, July, 1899.

The Association is also interested in various celebrations that are soon to take place. The seventy-fifth birthday of Dr. Frederick Furnivall, the distinguished English scholar who established the Early English Text Society, the Chaucer Society, and various other societies for the promotion of English studies, will be celebrated this year in England. Various members of the Modern Language Association of America are to contribute papers to the jubilee volume that is to be published, and all are urged to aid in putting the Early English Text Society on a sound financial basis, contributions to be sent to Prof. Bright of the Johns Hopkins. As the year 1900 brings the five-hundredth anniversary of the death of Chaucer, it was decided to constitute one session of the next meeting of the Association a Chaucer Session, at which papers dealing with Chaucerian subjects only will be read. The year following is the one-thousandth since the death of King Alfred, and will be celebrated throughout the English-speaking world. Papers will be contributed to the memorial volume by Profs. Bright, Hempl, Kittredge, and others, and the Modern Language Association will delegate its Secretary and other members to represent it at the celebration in the city of Winchester, which was the capital of Wessex, the royal residence and the burial-place of Alfred. The American Dialect So-

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ciety, which is practically a section of the Modern Language Association, held a business meeting Friday noon. The Secretary, Prof. Emerson of Western Reserve University, reported that the publication of *Dialect Notes* would be resumed at once, and on his motion the price of back numbers was reduced in such a way as to stimulate sales.

The social features of the meeting were pleasant and sufficient. President Low welcomed the Association to Columbia, and on Thursday evening, with Mrs. Low, received the delegates and others at his home. The University gave a luncheon in the Engineering Building on Thursday noon, and "the courtesies of the club" were extended to the delegates by the University Club and the Century Club. A considerable number of the members joined in a *Kneipe* at Hollander's on Wednesday evening. Heinrich Conried, manager of the Irving Place Theatre, kindly placed his private box at the disposal of some of the members, who were thus given the opportunity of seeing Schweighofer, the distinguished Viennese comedian.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in conjunction with the Philological Association and other similar bodies, presumably at Philadelphia. The new President is Prof. Thos. R. Price of Columbia.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT ITHACA.

ITHACA, *December 30, 1899.*

The common experience that a quiet locality and academic auspices are the most favorable conditions for a successful gathering of scientists, was fully confirmed by the results of the twelfth annual meeting of the American Economic Association held here this week with Cornell University. In the absence of distracting engagements, in the occasion for personal intercourse, and in the stimulus of informal discussion, no recent meeting of the Association has been so successful. The programme was on the whole less striking than that of the preceding year, and the American Historical Association was not in joint session; but, on the other hand, a single roof sheltered practically all of the members in attendance, and the close and continuous contact which resulted more than compensated for the lacking elements. The essential qualities of the memorable Indianapolis meeting were reproduced without the inconvenience of a snow blockade.

The most important single event of the meeting was, as had been expected, President Hadley's stimulating address as President of the Association, on "Economic Theory and Political Morality," delivered at the opening session on Wednesday morning. It was a continuation of his presidential address of the preceding year, and was characterized by the same acuteness of thought and clearness of expression. The central argument of the address was that, in the endeavor to increase his influence upon the political world, the economist "should undertake to realize the very highest ideals, as a scientific man who stands above the clouds of prejudice and therefore sees farther than those about him; that it is his high mission to be the representative and champion of the permanent interests of the whole country, in the face of conflicting claims from representatives of temporary or partial ones."

This view of the mission and the duties of the political economist, President Hadley pointed out, has been challenged on three grounds: as bad psychology, bad politics, and bad ethics. As a matter of practical psychology, no one, it is contended, can make his judgment as to national well-being independent of his social antecedents and his ethical training. It would accordingly seem far better to recognize from the first that each of us represents a locality or a class, and that the moral judgment of each observer is sure to be affected and, to some degree, distorted by his own personal prepossessions. In the second place, an attempt on the part of the economist to represent the total interest of the public, even if it proved approximately possible, would not be good politics. "Even if you believe yourself wholly disinterested, you must appeal to classes and secure the partial good which is attainable, rather than aim at the greater good which you are from the outset fated to miss." Finally, this latter view of the matter is not only practical politics, but practical ethics. The man who would sink the interest of a class in a supposed general public interest, is but depriving that class of its own natural safeguard in the struggle for existence.

Upon analysis, it appears that the views thus outlined are an outgrowth of our experience with two important institutions: competition and representative government. Competition has led people to see how frequently the self-interest of the individual, as given free play, conduces to the general advance of the public. Representative government has shown how a full expression of opinion by those who speak for the several parts or classes in the community, can be made to contribute to an advance which inures to the advantage of all parts and all classes together.

President Hadley's vigorous dissent from this theory of struggle and compromise as a normal means of progress was based upon a brilliant interpretation of the real nature and function of modern competition and representative government. It is not a struggle between different parts for their class interests, but struggles within each class that work out in an economic harmony. The success of competition, so far from warranting us in the adoption of a system of political morality and a theory of political progress based on advocacy of class interests, proves rather the advantage and even the necessity of subordinating those interests to a wider common good. With respect to representative government, profounder study of constitutional history shows that parliaments and congresses in the really great periods of their history have been valuable as a field not of compromise between local interests, but of information as to general ones; not for the consummation of private bargains, but for the creation of public spirit. To the extent to which our representative assemblies have ceased to be places for debate and have become bodies for the making of laws rather than for the making of opinion, they have lost in salutary influence.

However undesirable it may have been in the past, certainly, in the light of recent political and economic developments, it has become impossible for those who are placed in authority to represent personal or class interests, without gross violation of fundamental dictates of sympathy or of justice. President Hadley's own note was one of high optimism:

"We shall meet the new collective needs of industry and government with a true collectivism of spirit and purpose. Not with that superficial collectivism or socialism which, like the individual that it strives to supersede, often makes too much of mere political machinery, and believes that men are to be saved by their institutions rather than their characters; but with a public spirit which demands, as a part of the national ethics, that men shall shape their course on the basis of conviction rather than of compromise, and that public discussion shall look towards a common understanding rather than a bargain."

In the animated discussion of President Hadley's address, the leading part was taken by Prof. John R. Commons, whose contribution was in the form of a detailed review of the address. He urged that the economist should acknowledge that no man is great enough or good enough to stand for such an abstraction as society as a whole. It is out of the combined result of public-spirited men contending for their own convictions and authorized to speak for others whose convictions are the same, and who are able to make concessions in the interest of all, that all of society is truly represented. Not the individual economist, but the combined economists, represent the permanent interests of society as a whole.

The most attractive single session of the meeting was, beyond all question, that of Thursday morning, devoted to papers and discussion upon the subject of corporations and Trusts. The points of approach were hopelessly at variance, and the residuum was somewhat less than might have been expected. But interest never flagged, and only the peremptory summons of a formal luncheon appointment was able to effect adjournment. Two of the three papers presented were by non-professional economists, ex-Secretary of the Treasury Charles S. Fairchild and Mr. James B. Dill of New York city, and their crispness and vigor illustrated anew the wisdom of varying academic abstraction with a strain of practical experience in the arrangement of the programme. Mr. Fairchild described in clear and explicit detail the complex operations incident to the financiering of a typical Trust. Mr. Dill captivated his auditors by a characteristically sparkling address upon "Some Tendencies in Recent Combinations which may become Dangerous," in which graphic if not scientifically accurate distinction was drawn between legitimate corporate enterprise and "incorporated wind," and a vague degree of "publicity" was suggested as a corrective of corporate abuses, as viewed from the investor's standpoint.

A really substantial contribution to the discussion was made by Prof. Sidney Sherwood of the Johns Hopkins University in a thoughtful paper upon "The Influence of Trusts in the Development of Undertaking Genius." Prof. Sherwood urged that the costly wastes of our modern industrial system are the wastes of misdirected production, and that it is the natural and spontaneous effort of a progressive industrial organization to get undertaking genius at its head which has produced the Trust. In other words, the persistence of the Trust is dependent upon its securing and retaining the highest leadership. It is upon this historic superiority in undertaking genius in the capacity for organization that our future economic supremacy must rest. The destruction of Trusts

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would be the death-blow to our hopes for industrial leadership in the international struggle for future mastery. They are the most effective agencies for preventing the waste of competitive production. What is needed is an enlightened public appreciation of the possibilities for good which they offer, and a calm and wise limitation of their possibilities for evil through governmental regulation.

The afternoon sessions of both Wednesday and Thursday were devoted to the presentation and discussion of miscellaneous papers in theoretical and practical economics. Probably the most striking contribution was that of Prof. H. C. Emery of Bowdoin College on "The Place of the Speculator in Distribution," in which attention was called to the differentiation in recent industrial organization of the functions of risk-taking and entrepreneur's superintendence, and to the difficulty of assigning the compensation for industrial risk to any of the recognized factors or shares in distribution. In precision and clearness the paper left nothing to be desired, and its publication is likely to stimulate profitable discussion. The only other contribution to economic theory was a careful exposition of Senior's surprisingly modern theory of monopoly by Prof. Richard T. Ely of the University of Wisconsin. No one of the classical economists has suffered greater neglect at the hands of students than the author of the abstinence theory of interest, and it is to be hoped that Prof. Ely will supplement his partial review by a full study of Senior's place in the history of economic thought, and, better still, by an adequate edition of his scattered writings.

The subject of municipal finance was represented by a carefully prepared paper on "Taxation as a Partial Substitute for Borrowing to Cover Permanent Municipal Improvement," by Prof. E. D. Durand of Stanford University, author of the valuable study of the finances of New York city. The dangerous tendency of American, and, indeed, of British, municipalities to provide by funding instead of taxation, not only for permanent additions to the municipal plant, but for improvements properly chargeable to current income, is familiar. Grave embarrassment is, however, encountered in the rigid application of the salutary corrective suggested by Prof. Durand. The ordinary American city is in the midst of critical change from a mere industrial segregation to a self-conscious entity. The prevalent conditions are imperative municipal improvements, burdensome tax-rates, and inelastic revenues. Under such circumstances it is idle to suppose that a municipal electorate will content itself with cobble-stone pavements, surface drainage, and obsolete school-houses, while local borrowing remains so easy and agreeable a process. Expediency seems the only practicable rule that can be laid down for the fiscal conduct of American cities in this particular within the near future. To "pay as you go" is by all odds the safer rule; but, as was noted in the discussion of this important paper, the likelihood of decline in the burden of present municipal indebtedness through refunding operations and through a more consistent policy of amortization, and the certainty of progressive increase in the basis of municipal taxation, offer some justification for specific departure therefrom.

The three papers read on Thursday afternoon were all concerned with railway economics. Mr. W. H. Baldwin, jr., President of the Long Island Railway, discussed the organization and usefulness of railroad relief and beneficiary associations. Dr. B. H. Mayer of the University of Wisconsin presented an admirably clear and scholarly study of railway charters, and Prof. Henry C. Adams, Statistician of the Interstate Commerce Commission, considered certain aspects of the pooling problem.

The final session of the meeting was held on Friday morning. Prof. John Graham Brooks spoke of the work of the Consumers' League, and of the movement against the sweat-shop by the adoption of a League label, affixed to garments made under decent industrial conditions. Prof. Walter F. Willcox of Cornell University, now Chief Statistician of the Twelfth Census, described the plans for the approaching Census, and further details were added by Mr. H. T. Newcomb, Chief of the Agricultural Division. Both statements were objective and guarded, and yet the impression left was one of hopeful anticipation as to the scientific value of the forthcoming enumeration. It was impossible not to recall the discussion upon the plan and organization of the Census which took place at the New Haven meeting last year, and equally impossible not to feel a keen sense of gratitude to the special committee whose admirable report and critical essays on the Federal Census appear to have exerted direct and important influence.

Pressure of time permitted a bare reading of the report of the special committee on colonies, constituted at the last meeting, and composed of Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, chairman; the Hon. Charles S. Hamlin, Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, and Dr. Albert Shaw. The efforts of the committee have been directed to securing information regarding the fiscal methods and economic conditions of typical modern colonies, with a view to suggesting tentatively, on the basis of this information, some general principles which might be applicable to the government of the new dependencies of the United States. With the material thus far secured, the committee felt itself warranted merely in offering certain general suggestions as a preliminary report.

These included the recommendations that the finances of each colony should be managed exclusively for the sake of the colony and its development; that each colony must be considered by itself, and its system must be adapted to its conditions; that each colony should be made, as far as possible, self-supporting, but the mother country may well sustain the colony's credit or make temporary advances; that, in undeveloped colonies, important public works may well be owned by the Government and managed by Government officials. Sources of revenue should be selected in accordance with the economic and social conditions of the colony. Where the development of trade with foreign countries is the chief economic consideration, import duties should be very low or practically non-existent. In colonies of undeveloped economic resources, the chief reliance for general government income should be on excise duties, levied primarily on a few articles of general consumption. When any colony has decided advantages in the production of some specially favored commodities, it may be desirable to impose business licenses or similar duties, or even low export duties, on such commodities. Local revenue should in most cases be derived in a large measure from real estate, business licenses, and kindred specific taxes. In the administration of fiscal affairs, natives wherever possible should be utilized as officials, and native customs continued during the period of transition; but the desires of the United States Government are to be paramount and its decisions final. In those dependencies where it is difficult to secure an adequate supply of efficient native labor, the question of an admission of foreign labor should be seriously considered. Finally, for the proper administration of the fiscal system in any of the dependencies of the United States, it is absolutely essential to establish a civil service which is beyond question as respects the ability and honesty of its personnel.

As intimated at the outset, the peculiar success of the meeting was largely due to the opportunities for personal contact and social intercourse which it offered. In securing this result, the social courtesies extended by the local committee were in great measure responsible. The members of the Association lunched in Sage College on Wednesday and Thursday as the guests of Cornell University; they were received by President and Mrs. Schurman at a delightful reception on Wednesday evening, and a convivial smoker on Thursday evening at the Town and Gown Club was the crowning function of the meeting.

The business transacted by the Council of the Association was for the most part routine. A slight change was made in the form of publications, and the Executive Committee were authorized to appoint special committees on the agricultural problem and on the negro question. The only changes in the officers of the Association were the election of Prof. Richard T. Ely as President, and the consolidation of the offices of Secretary and Treasurer in the person of Prof. Charles H. Hull. Detroit and the Christmas recess of 1900 were selected as the time and place of the next meeting, thus making possible a joint session with the American Historical Association. J. H. H.

Correspondence.

THE SEIZURE OF THE *BUNDESRATH*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A question of international law seems to have arisen between England and Germany. It is in respect to the capture of the German steamer *Bundesrath* by a British cruiser, on the ground of her carrying contraband of war, claimed by England to be destined for the Boers, to a neutral port.

Heretofore the right of capture of contraband goods being carried to a neutral port has been understood to exist only where the ulterior destination is to a belligerent port. It is stated that England claims that, to justify the capture, the ultimate destination need not be to a "belligerent *port*." But a neutral has the undisputed right to sell and deliver munitions of war to a belligerent; and if this extension of the rule in favor of belligerents should be admitted, it would place the trade of neutral nations

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under restrictions that would not be tolerated.

Suppose a war between England and France in which a New York merchant orders and receives certain goods that are munitions of war from his correspondent in Germany. Under international law he has a clear right to buy the goods and, on receiving them, to sell and deliver them in Canada. Could a French cruiser capture the vessel and carry her into a French port for adjudication, on pretext that the ultimate destination of the goods was to a place or (we will say) to a military post in Canada?

FRANCIS J. LIPPITT.

BOER PREPARATIONS FOR WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "An American," in your issue of December 14, evidently believing in Boer deep, sinister designs against the British Empire (designs of which we heard nothing before the war), asks: "Did the big guns and the big officers come in during, previous to, or subsequent to the franchise discussions?" The following figures enable us to answer the question. They have been brought together from official sources by Mr. Alfred Marks, a London banker, have gone the rounds of the press here, and have, so far as I know, never been questioned. These are for the last ten years all the heads of account of Transvaal expenditure under which it has been suggested that military preparations could have been included:

	Military	Public Works.	Special Payments.	Sundry Services.	Total.
1889	£75,523	£300,071	£58,737	£171,088	£605,419
1890	42,999	507,579	58,160	133,701	742,439
1891	117,927	492,094	52,486	76,494	739,001
1892	29,739	361,670	40,276	93,410	525,095
1893	19,340	200,106	148,981	132,132	500,559
1894	28,158	260,962	75,859	163,547	528,526
1895	87,308	353,724	205,335	838,877	1,485,244
1896	495,618	701,022	682,008	128,724	2,007,372
1897	396,384	1,012,866	248,684	135,345	1,793,279
1898	*163,451	383,033	157,519	100,874	804,877

* First nine months.

There is no special rise in such expenditure until after 1894. In that year the nature of the reception by British residents accorded to Lord Loch in Pretoria naturally aroused the Boers to a sense of their danger. In 1896 came the raid and its virtual condonation by the British Government. Since 1896 the expenditure has steadily declined. Will these figures satisfy "An American"? Doubtless not. During your war of the Rebellion, I never knew any one's opinion on this side concerning the war altered by argument. There is much truth in "Lewis Carroll's" dictum: "My view of life is, that it's next to impossible to convince anybody of anything."

Yours very truly, ALFRED WEBB.

SHELMALIERE, DUBLIN, December 25, 1899.

TELL IT NOT TO THE TAGALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your readers may be interested to know how long the books sent from Europe are kept in New York. You will see that the wrapper I enclose, which left Edinburgh on December 11, has been stamped twice in New York—on December 21 and January 5—so that it stayed fifteen days in your city. New York custom-house officers must have taken a very long vacation. The duty is charged here with extreme rigor. For the "Vazir of Lankurán," a Persian play with an English translation, which costs half a guinea, I had to pay ninety cents duty. An attempt has even been made to make me pay duty on postage, and it took me some time to prove to the officials that they had no right to do so. A book sent from Germany by registered mail is very often marked here as dutiable, and, even after the package is opened and the book found to be a foreign one, it is not delivered to the addressee immediately, but the postmaster has to write to Boston in order to get permission to deliver it free of duty, which takes some five days.—Yours respectfully,

JOSEPH DE PEROTT.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS., January 7, 1900.

ERRING WITH PLATO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with recent discussions regarding the initial year of the new century, it has already been noted in your columns that the same confusion marked the beginning of the present one. The jest in Heine's 'Reisebilder' that because he was (assumedly) born on the 1st of January, 1800, he was therefore one of the first men of the century, is another illustration, in which he doubly falsified the record. At about the above date, Schiller writes to Goethe with greetings "for the new year and the new century"; and Goethe, replying under date of January 1, 1800, responds that he is "right glad to have finished in Schiller's company, on the previous evening, the year and the century, too."

Very truly yours, H. S. WHITE.

ITHACA, N. Y., January 1, 1900.

Notes.

An anonymous antiquarian has been at the pains to prepare an 'Historical Index' to the series of expensive manuals of the corporation of the city of New York known as Valentine's (1841-1870), which went under with the Tweed régime. They are rich in matter concerning the annals, buildings, manners and customs of this city, jumbled together and only to be sifted with great labor. Francis P. Harper has ventured an edition of 250 copies of this collection of 2,325 references.

Balthasar Hubmaier and Faustus Socinus will be combined in the next volume of the "Heroes of the Reformation" series, being treated respectively by the Rev. Henry C. Vedder, D.D., and the Rev. Alexander Gordon. Messrs. Putnam have also in press 'A Book for All Readers,' by Ainsworth R. Spofford of the National Library at Washington; and 'Let There be Light,' "the story of a workingmen's club, its search for the causes of poverty and social inequality, its discussions, and its plan for amelioration," by David Lubin.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have ready a literary map of England, prepared by Prof. William Lyon Phelps of Yale, which is designed to convey a knowledge of the mother country to school children and college students, and should have a still wider utility.

Mr. Frank Stockton's 'Rudder Grange' celebrates its twentieth year in the fine uniform edition of this writer's works which the Scribners have in hand. A younger brother and less famous is 'The Hundredth Man,' which forms the companion volume. Mr. Stockton could hardly have found a more sympathetic illustrator than Mr. Frost, whose designs are frontispieces only, and harmonize perfectly with the elegant typography.

The pot-pourri of 'Stories from Old-Fashioned Children's Books, brought together and introduced to the Reader by Andrew W. Tuer, F.S.A., adorned with 250 Amusing Cuts' (London: The Leadenhall Press; New York: Scribners), is arranged by dates, ranging from 1767 to 1828. There is no other order, and typographically this curious collection is quite disorderly. The pictorial illustrations are of a generally poor and rude character, and the text (as Mr. Tuer himself warns) had better be attacked at intervals. Numerous facsimile title-pages are given, and one of these does injury to Bewick by attributing to him cuts that he was guiltless of. The book was worth making, but how much better it might have been done!

Harper & Brothers have reprinted from the *North American Review* a number of papers on the South African question under the title 'Briton and Boer.' The first of these, and the only one of great value, is Mr. James Bryce's statement of the "Historical Causes of the Present War in South Africa." Of this we need only say that it is an incomparable piece of work, not merely in its estimate of the forces in operation, but also in the compactness of its presentation of the facts in the case and in the marvellous impartiality of its view. Perhaps none of its statements can be successfully controverted, and yet the advocates of the British cause will feel that somehow the ground on which they stand has been seriously undermined. The papers by Karl Blind, Francis Charmes, and Demetrius Boulger indicate that while the great Powers may not combine against England, the sentiment of Continental writers who have been friendly to her is unfavorable to her present course. It is unnecessary to say that those who have been heretofore hostile have not been propitiated.

The house of Cotta in Stuttgart announces Friedrich Theodor Vischer's "Shakespeare-Vorträge," to be issued in six volumes, the first of which, comprising 510 octavo pages, has just appeared. In an introduction of 228 pages the author discusses the Baconian hypothesis and a variety of kindred questions, gives a survey of the pre-Shaksperian drama, describes the theatre of his time, and deals at length with editions, translations, criticisms, etc., of Shakspere's works in different countries. The rest of the volume is devoted to the analysis and appreciation of "Hamlet." These lectures were justly celebrated when they were delivered many years ago at the University of Tübingen. Unfortunately there is no complete manuscript of them in existence, and the editor, Robert Vischer (the Professor's son), is obliged to reproduce the text so far as possible from the stenographic notes of students. The result is a fair summary of the substance of the lectures, without the fulness of elucidation and grace of style which originally characterized them.

Edwin Bormann, perhaps the most plausible of all "Baconians," follows up a volume ('Das Shakespeare-Geheimniss,' Leipzig, 1894) well illustrated with facsimiles that alone give it value, with a similar one entitled 'Bacon-Shakespeare's Venus und Adonis.' It is an exact reprint of the ori-

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ginal edition (1593) of the poem, with annotations for the purpose of discovering in the text cryptographic allusions to Lord Bacon. This part possesses the usual marks of hallucination, but every owner of the book will be glad of the authentic pictorial apparatus. Bormann has announced his intention to publish all the works of Shakspere in the same style and with annotations from the same point of view. If he carries out this plan, we shall have a series of volumes which, so far as paper, typography, exact reproductions of the earliest texts, and rare illustrations are concerned, will leave nothing to be desired and will be a delight to all lovers of English literature.

The Florentine antiquary Leo Olscki has recently discovered in the house of a Venetian patrician a complete copy of the Bible with Nicholas Lyra's commentary, printed in 1471-72 by Arnold Pannartz in the palace of the Marquis Pietro Massimo at Rome. This work is extremely rare, and a copy of it was sold in Italy not long ago for 30,000 lire. The copy found by Olscki is richly illustrated with colored drawings of real and fabulous beasts of a symbolical character, heads of angels, plans of sacred edifices, and six emblematic jewels. The drawings are by a contemporary artist, probably Andrea Mantegna, or at least by one of his pupils. Luther is known to have prized this commentary highly, and to have used it in his interpretation of Holy Writ. This indebtedness gave rise to the saying: "Si Lyra non lyrasset, Luther non saltasset"—If Lyra had not played the lyre, Luther would not have danced.

The Statistical Year-Book of Canada for 1898, issued by the Department of Agriculture, is the fourteenth volume of this valuable annual. It contains all needful information as to the agricultural and mineral products, trade and commerce, finance, transportation by rail and canal, the post-office, insurance, temperance, crime and education; and, in an appendix, records the personnel of the several governments of the Dominion.

Amid the usual interesting variety of the *New England Magazine* (Boston: Warren F. Kellogg) in the January issue—illustrated articles on Peter Faneuil and his famous Boston Hall, "White's Selborne Revisited," Northampton, and others—the sketch of Mrs. Ellen Cheney Johnson and the Sherborn (Mass.) Prison for Women, by Isabel C. Barrows, may preëminently claim attention. The death of Mrs. Johnson could but be felt, by those who knew her and had seen her at her post of superintendent, as that of a necessary person; one could not imagine the work going on without her. As the minister is the church, and the editor the paper, so she was that innovating institution which is one of the gems in the humane diadem of Massachusetts. Worth reading the article is in every word, and this passage is worth quoting: "It is doubtful whether any other penal institution in the world encourages reading to the extent that this does. Every woman is compelled to have on her dress skirt a large, strong, flat pocket into which a book can be easily slipped."

The multitudinous thoughts which M. Brunetière puts forth in his survey of the "Literature of Europe in the Nineteenth Century" (*Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 1) will very likely awaken dissent or doubt in the minds of most readers as often as their hearty concurrence; but it will be found that the "curve of evolution" is, on the whole, skilfully traced. The features inviting criticism are, on the negative side, some very noticeable gaps, natural enough where the field is so vast, and, on the positive, an occasional infelicitous grouping of writers and certain startling comparisons, as, for example, when George Eliot, Tolstoy, and Dostoyevsky are associated with Balzac, Flaubert, and Dickens, to suggest, in the field of literature, a counterpart of the Dutch school of painting (p. 672); or when (seemingly for the sake of a pleasing rhetorical contrast to Musset and Leopardi) Heine is said to pour out in his lyrics with poignant utterance his suffering from doubt or unbelief (p. 660)! Where in Heine's lyrics can M. Brunetière have found "les sanglots les plus purs" of that tenor? And, without wishing to forestall what the future may bring, can it be said at the present time that Wagner's poetic activity has had as important results as his musical achievements (p. 661)?

By an unfortunate error our recent review of Dr. Spingarn's 'Literary Criticism in the Renaissance' stated that, among others, Paccius, Parrhasius, Landi, Capriano, Piccolomini, and Giasone di Nores did not seem to be included in this study. All are included except Parrhasius, as a correspondent has pointed out to us.

—The *Atlantic* for January gives the place of honor to the autobiography of W. J. Stillman, which takes us back to the first half of the century. Of his early childhood Mr. Stillman paints a rather depressing picture; it is hard to remember that so small a stretch of time separates us from the period when parents, no matter how tender-hearted, felt themselves under the necessity of flogging their children for what we should now consider trivial offences. It is easy to see that the idea at the root of the system was that the vice to be eradicated by the lash was disobedience; it mattered little, in this view, what the proscribed act was, so long as it *was* proscribed. The violation of the parental order was the crime, the heinousness of which was equally great in all cases. Such a system could not outlive the discovery, made early in this century, that the amount of obedience secured was not in proportion to the amount of physical pain inflicted for disobedience. To many readers T. J. J. See's "Recent Astronomical Discoveries in the Southern Hemisphere" will be as interesting as anything in this number of the magazine. Thanks, in great measure, to American astronomers, the exploration of the Southern heavens has been undertaken within the last thirty years "with a degree of thoroughness commensurate with the inherent interest of the richest portion of the celestial sphere." Like all popular astronomical papers, this one is, to the layman, full of surprises. Mr. See calls attention, for instance, to the "somewhat remarkable fact" that, since the time of Newton, "no certain advance has been made toward explaining the nature of gravity," adding that Laplace made numerous investigations to ascertain whether it is propagated with a finite velocity, like light and electricity. The result of his labors was that, if gravity has a finite velocity, it must be "millions of times" greater than that of light, which travels at the rate of 186,000 miles per second. Mr. See goes on: "From Laplace's investigations, and those made since his time, the indications are that gravity acts instantaneously throughout the universe, and is not propagated like other forces with a finite velocity. The nature of gravity thus remains an enigma, and it is not easy to see how any light can be thrown upon the cause from which it arises."

—The current *Scribner's* opens with Mr. Roosevelt's profusely illustrated Cromwell. Like some of his predecessors, he takes occasion to allow his study of the Protector's life to reveal his views of contemporary politics. He declares that what rendered it necessary for England "to pass through the fiery ordeal of the Civil War in order that she might be saved," was that she had been steeped, "during the first forty years of the country," in an "ignoble and therefore an evil peace." Such a peace "is as great a curse as the most unrighteous war." Those who doubt this, says Mr. Roosevelt, "would do well to study the condition of England during the reign of James I. and during the first part of the reign of Charles I. England had then no standing army and no foreign policy worthy of the name. The chief of her colonies were growing up almost against her wishes, and wholly without any help or care from her. In short, she realized the conditions, as regards her relations with the outside world and 'militarism,' which certain philosophers advocate at the present day for America." *De te fabula.* In other words, those who are opposed to militarism at the present day would have America take the attitude towards the outside world in which James I. and Charles I. put England. Mr. Roosevelt is too hard on Charles I. If Charles were alive now, he would necessarily sympathize with much that Mr. Roosevelt writes. For instance, he was a great naval reformer, at least in theory; it was his anxiety to give England a fine navy to counterbalance those of France and Holland which led to his imposition of the ship-money tax. Hampden and his friends resisted this, but the tax was sustained in the courts. "The Poetic Cabarets of Paris," by Eliot Gregory, with illustrations by Mr. Gregory and E. Potthast, gives some entertaining information about a part of the life of Paris little known to Anglo-Saxons. To understand Paris one must understand the *cafés*, just as to understand London one must understand the clubs. We have or may have heard Yvette Guilbert sing; but how many Americans have any knowledge of Jules Jouy, who wrote her ballads, and is a man whose praise has been sounded by such critics as Sarcey and Jules Lemaître? Undoubtedly many of these ballads, like Yvette Guilbert herself, are under the ban of propriety, but the same cannot be said of Caran d'Ache and his great café success of the "Épopée of Napoleon"—and what distinct knowledge or estimate have we of that? Perhaps the Bohemia of our day will yet produce its Mürger, and then we shall know more.

—*Harper's* has an illustrated article by Arnold White on "The British System of Colonial Government," which contains a good deal of information not readily accessible. Mr. White has had exceptional opportunities for observation, as he has served, since its creation in 1887, on the voluntary committee which administers the Bureau

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of Emigrants' Information under the control of the Colonial Office. From 1793 down, for sixty years, the same minister had charge of the business of war and the administration of the colonies. Only in 1854 were the two separated. According to Mr. White, the separation was due to the "Crimean fiasco." How many Colonial Secretaries there have been since 1854 does not appear; but from 1794 to 1899 there were forty-six secretaries who administered either the War and Colonial Office jointly, or the latter separately. The continuity of administration is kept up by under-secretaries and a permanent staff; otherwise, with such constant changes of the head, effected through the mutations of domestic politics, there could be none. When Lord Palmerston took charge, he is reported to have addressed one of the permanent officials on his first visit to the office in the following words: "Let us come up stairs and look at the maps and see where these places are." The Colonial Minister is directly concerned with the details of forty distinct and independent governments, to say nothing of scattered dependencies which do no possess regularly formed administrations. The line of demarcation between the duties of the Colonial Secretary and the Secretary for Foreign Affairs is not clearly marked out. Lord Salisbury's bailiwick includes the British North Borneo Company, the Somali Protectorate, British East Africa, the Niger Coast, and the Uganda Protectorates; the Transvaal, officially recognized by England for fifteen years as the South African Republic, and which no one pretends is a colony, is, as every one is aware, under Mr. Chamberlain's care. There is a good deal more information than literature in this number of *Harper's*. For the latter we turn inevitably to Mrs. Humphry Ward's "Eleanor." This is at least a real novel by an accomplished hand. It introduces a new type, in a woman's man who has given up politics (he might have been Prime Minister) to write a book which shall, however, be his political vindication; and a new form of an old type—the American girl abroad. In this case the little charmer is a Vermont Methodist, who has perfect manners, but does not know how to dress or arrange her hair. The hero, it should be said, is a Catholic reactionary, and if he does not become interested in the pretty Methodist, the readers of instalments yet to come will certainly be surprised.

—The *Century* is so devoted to art that criticism of it as periodical literature covers only half the ground. Such a paper, for instance, as that of Frederick A. Cook on "The New Antarctic Discoveries" is mainly interesting through its novel "pictures in color after photographs by the author." The same cannot be said, however, of Joshua Slocum's "Sailing Alone Around the World," which will, no doubt, soon appear as a book. The present number contains the fifth instalment, "From Australia to Cape Town, South Africa." The pictures, by Thomas Fogarty and George Varian, are decidedly subordinate to the nautico-literary yarn spun by the hardy and cheerful skipper and master of the *Spray*. We have to go back to Marryat for anything at all like it, but it must be remembered that Marryat was a writer of mere fiction, while Capt. Slocum confines himself strictly to fact. Were it not for this we should give him credit every now and then for drawing on his imagination. For instance, his interview with Paul Krüger (he made incidentally the trip from the Cape to Kimberley, Johannesburg, and Pretoria) is curious. Judge Beyers, the gentleman who introduced Capt. Slocum, mentioned that he was on a voyage round the world, upon which the President of the South African Republic corrected the Judge rather sharply, reminding him that the world was flat. "You don't mean *round* the world," said the President, "you mean *in* the world"; and not another word would the President utter. The Judge is reported to have been "embarrassed," as well he might be, but the Captain was delighted, and gave the story to an enterprising journalist of Cape Town, who made a very good caricature of it for local consumption. But what is a caricature compared with the report of the original conversation by the person to whom the remark was addressed? It is the narrative of the actual voyage of the *Spray*, however, rather than the account of what happened to the author when ashore, that gives the story its value. An out-of-the-way piece of fiction is Ernest Seton-Thompson's "The Biography of a Grizzly," with pictures by the author. Perhaps, after all, it should not be regarded as out of the way so much as a novel development of an old species of story—that in which an animal is the hero. Æsop made use of animals for one purpose, the author of 'Black Beauty' for another, and still more recently we have had Kipling unlocking the secret thoughts of wolves, tigers, and other wild beasts. Mr. Seton-Thompson's tale might never have been written had it not been for Kipling, but his grizzly is what might be called a romantic or operatic bear, who dies to slow music in the last act, and makes us feel happier for having known him. Wahb may or may not be real, but he possesses interest, which (*pace* the realists) is more important in fiction than verisimilitude.

—New signs of the fusion, or at least *rapprochement*, of the two great currents of higher education may be observed at the University of Göttingen. Prof. Klein, the famous mathematician, who, perhaps from fear of giving umbrage to some possible labor organization, delighted his American audiences with such a harmless subject as the "Theory of the Top," has founded a "Society for the Advancement of Applied Physics," counting among its members, aside from eight professors of the University, several representatives of German industrial firms. Furthermore, the newly opened laboratories for electrotechnics (under Prof. Descoudres) and of general technical physics (under Prof. Eugene Meyer) are attracting students whose instruction would hitherto have fallen rather within the province of technical institutions. Another step towards modernizing higher education is suggested by a petition to the Prussian Minister of State from a large number of German jurists; contending that graduates from the Realgymnasia should no longer be refused admission to the law courses in the universities. A similar agitation among the medical profession, it will be remembered, has been going on for some years. Protests against such "Americanizing tendencies," however, are, and no doubt will continue to be, heard from various quarters. Thus, the new rector of the German University of Prague, Dr. von Holzinger, the classical philologian, in his inaugural address (published in *Hochschul-Nachrichten* for November) has no sympathy whatever with such new-fangled ideas as the welding of polytechnic school and university into a "mongrel colossus," the presence of women students in the "Männeruniversitäten," and that "new growth upon the ancient university body, called university extension."

—Volume xxvi. of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan consists of a single booklet, containing four papers of value. Dr. Ludwig Riess contributes an exhaustive "History of the English Factory at Hirado." At this island, called "Firando" on old maps, the English opened trade in 1614, attempting also agencies at Osaka, Yedo, Sakai, Kioto, Shidzuoka, and Uraga, and on Tsushima for the trade with Korea. The English factory did not follow the policy of their Dutch rivals, which was to do business as wholesale traders, selling to Japanese shop-keepers on a credit system; it wanted to sell directly to the consumer by means of its branch offices and agencies. The story, exceedingly interesting in detail and worthy of study, is one of failure. After ten years the enterprise was abandoned, and with it the hope of opening China also to trade. The only trace left on the spot of the former English factory at Hirado is part of the wall of the burial-place on a hill outside the town. Incidentally, on the subject of extra-territorial jurisdiction and its embodiment in modern treaties, our envoy, Mr. Townsend Harris, is fully justified by Sir Ernest Satow, British Minister and one of the first scholars in Japanese. Harris's action "was perfectly in accord with Japanese ideas." Prof. Ernest W. Clement opens a chapter in the feudal chivalry of Japan in his charming paper on the "Instructions of a Mito Prince to his Retainers." The subject is ably followed up by Mr. J. H. Gubbins in his too brief sketch of "Laws of the Tokugawa Period" (1604-1868). Mr. John Foster Fraser tells of his travels through upper Burma and western China. The appendices, discussions, and data concerning the Society are all of prime interest to the student of Japan.

JOHN BULL, PAINTER.

The Life and Letters of Sir John Everett Millais, President of the Royal Academy. By his son, John Guille Millais. With 316 illustrations. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1899. 2 vols., 8vo.

Sir John Everett Millais: His Art and Influence. By A. L. Baldry. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan Co. 1899.

These two books, the one mainly biographical, the other mainly critical, deal with the extraordinary career of an artist who, beginning as a rebel, ended as the official chief of British art, and who lived through a storm of savage criticism to become the most popular painter ever known, and the darling of the great British public. From "Johnny" Millais, P.R.B., to Sir John Millais, P.R.A., was a vast stride; and from the painter of "Ophelia" and "The Huguenot" to the painter of "Bubbles" seems, at first sight, an even longer one, though critics have differed as to its direction. To us, however, looking back from the vantage ground of the present, it seems certain that Millais was essentially the same from beginning to end, that his ultimate triumph was always assured, and that the only

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wonder in the matter is, that it should have taken the British public so long to discover that he was the man for its money. As a matter of fact, it did not take the public as long to find this out as it did the critics, and the engraving of "The Huguenot" was selling like hot cakes while the press was snarling and snapping at the painter's heels.

John Everett Millais was born at Southampton, June 8, 1829, of a family of poor gentlefolk from the Island of Jersey, where much of his childhood was passed. He exhibited a remarkably precocious talent for drawing, and was taken to London at the age of eight to begin the serious study of art, entered the schools of the Royal Academy at ten, and had taken every prize that that institution offered to students before he was twenty. It was this pet of the schools, this predestined Academician, who in 1848 joined with the earnest but obscure Hunt and the flighty and untrained Rossetti to found the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and unfurled the banner of revolt against accepted methods of painting. Both the younger Millais and Mr. Baldry rate Millais's influence in founding the Brotherhood higher than has generally been done hitherto. Rossetti has been generally credited with the leadership, but this claim is scouted by the present writers, who consider him as rather an uncertain ally. As little as possible is said by either of them about Ford Madox Brown, who had begun to do Pre-Raphaelite work before the Brotherhood was heard of; and while Hunt's vigorous personality cannot be overlooked, the general impression is given that Millais was not only the most conspicuous figure in the fight that followed, but the real leader as well. The truth seems to be that Pre-Raphaelism was a very complex movement, compounded of Rossetti's poetic mediævalism, Hunt's religious mysticism, and Brown's naturalism and love of detail, and that it was only with this last that Millais had any real sympathy. His "Isabella" was influenced by Rossetti, and his "Carpenter's Shop" by Hunt; after that, his Pre-Raphaelism took a color of its own and became merely a manner of painting. He was much the most brilliant executant of the set and a splendid fighter, and therefore naturally bore the brunt of the opposition aroused by the movement.

There are, however, not wanting signs that the opposition was less serious than has been thought. The fact is lightly passed by, with scarce a mention, that in 1850, the year of "The Carpenter's Shop," when the "storm of execration" was at its loudest, Millais was elected an Associate of the Academy, and the election annulled only because it was discovered that he was not yet of the requisite age. In 1852 came "The Huguenot," the first picture definitely his own; and in 1853, when "The Proscribed Royalist" and "The Order of Release" appeared, the Academy capitulated. It had taken only five years to force its doors, and Millais was an A.R.A. at twenty-four. Meanwhile it is well to note that his pictures were almost invariably sold, and for what still seem very fair prices. The "bullying" of the press really did him no harm, and brought out Ruskin in his defence. He was the most discussed and therefore the most famous artist of the day. In his letters he grumbles much and talks of efforts to "put him down," and seems to dream of a conspiracy against him. The fact is, rather, that few young artists have had so easy and rapid a road to success.

As early as 1850 he had confided to W. Bell Scott that Pre-Raphaelism was "all nonsense," and that "one could not live doing that"; and in the same year he said to Mrs. Combe: "People had better buy my pictures now, when I am working for fame, than a few years later, when I shall be married and working for a wife and children." How far the fact that one "couldn't live doing that" influenced the change, it is hard to say, but it was within two years of his marriage that his break with Pre-Raphaelism began to show itself in "Sir Isumbras," and it was more clearly accented by "The Vale of Rest" and "Apple Blossoms" in 1859. For a time the fight was on again in all its fury, with Ruskin now at the head of the enemy. These pictures were still too Pre-Raphaelite for his old opponents, while they had ceased to be Pre-Raphaelite enough for his old friends, and nobody was pleased. The "Apple Blossoms," which seems to us one of his most artistic productions, was, perhaps, the most unpopular picture he ever painted. This time, however, the opposition collapsed even more quickly; "The Black Brunswicker" of the next year becoming vastly popular. In 1863 appeared "My First Sermon," the earliest of his pictures in what may be called his "Christmas *Graphic*" style, and he was made a full Academician at once.

Madox Brown lived and died an unsuccessful man. Rossetti was the painter of a clique and the founder of the æsthetic cult. Holman Hunt, by dint of dogged persistence and by his appeal to the religious sentiment, worked his way through long neglect to a partial popularity. Millais was, almost from first to last, a favorite of the British Philistine, because he saw with the eyes, thought with the brain, and felt with the soul of the average Briton. Mr. Baldry says, speaking of "Chill October" and its successors, "The unquestionable popularity that Millais gained by his excursions into landscape was certainly due to the fact that his observation was of the ordinary and everyday kind"; and a little later:

"He never could be ranked among the inspired painters of the open air, nor could he ever be said to have dealt exhaustively with the problems presented by natural phenomena. He remained untouched by the subtleties of atmospheric effect, by the varieties of momentary illumination, or by the fleeting glories of aerial color, which provide the student of nature's devices with the chief incentive to artistic effort."

This is very acute criticism, and it is surprising that the author of it did not see that, in everything else as in landscape painting, Millais's "observation was of the ordinary and every-day kind," and that his phenomenal success was due as much to the fact that he never puzzled his public by seeing what it could not see, as to the fact that he saw and rendered what it did see with wonderful accuracy.

In the 'Life and Letters' we are given many illuminating glimpses of Pre-Raphaelite methods of study and production. The formula was something like this. One took a canvas into the country and found something that interested him as a background. Often the subject of the picture was still undetermined, and always the figures were, at most, lightly outlined on a white ground. Leaving a space for the figures, the background was painted "inch by inch," as Ruskin used to say. It might take months to complete, but changes of season mattered as little as changes of light, and the painter who could work eleven hours a day "under an umbrella throwing a shadow scarcely larger than a half-penny" without noticing that the sun had changed its position, was not likely to be bothered by the succession of blossoms. When the picture was "done, all but the figures," it was taken to London, and there, in a studio, the figures were painted with equal minuteness from life. And this was supposed to be truth to nature. It is not until "The Proscribed Royalist" that we hear of any effort to paint the figure in the same light as the landscape, the effort consisting in letting in the sun through a window. In this case Millais also rigged up a lay-figure on the spot to get the draperies right with their surroundings. He does not seem to have done the like very often. Brown's conscientiousness in painting out of doors in cold weather to get the purple color of the flesh was never much in Millais's line. The minuteness of finish Millais gradually abandoned. The painter who had said, in 1851, "Great success blunts enthusiasm, and little by little men get into carelessness, which is construed by idiotic critics into a nobler handling," could say of Ruskin in 1859, "He does not understand my work, which is now too broad for him to appreciate, and I think his eye is only fit to judge the portraits of insects"; but the change was in reality only a superficial one, and the "breadth" was that of brush-stroke only, not of point of view.

The truth is that Millais was, all his life, equally insensible to truth of values and beauty of tone; to the larger truths of nature as to the greater qualities of art. The lack of minute finish in his later work only renders more evident the limitation of view that was always there. It is not more essentially—only more visibly—artificial than his early work. But if Millais never had any sense of values, no more had he any feeling for composition or for drawing as such. He drew fairly well as regards accuracy to fact, but we see nothing in his work to show that he ever cared for line or form as a means of artistic expression. In fact, we do not think he ever cared for any purely artistic quality because it was artistic. He was a typical Englishman, with the Englishman's love of sport, of out-of-doors, of the family, and of sentiment. He loved a landscape because it was a good spot for fishing or shooting, an incident because it was heroic or sentimental, a woman because she was handsome, and a child because it was a pretty child; he never cared for or thought of what he could make of it in a work of art—the grace of an outline, the intricacy of a pattern, the dignity of a silhouette, or the harmony of tone and color. He looked at landscape like a game-keeper, and it has been said that he saw children "like a nursery-maid." In early days he enjoyed the minutiæ of realization, and in later days he revelled in the sleight-of-hand of suggestion, but it was always representation that he cared for, never art; and representation of mere fact, never of effect.

He has been much blamed for the falling off of imagination and invention in his later work—as we think, unjustly. He had never had much, and what little he had was illustrative, not pictorial, imagination. His tendency to produce his result with as little trouble as possible showed itself at least as

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early as "The Huguenot." He had meant merely to paint two lovers, but Hunt persuaded him that the motive was not sufficiently dignified, and that some historical episode must be suggested. The white scarf did the business, and a picture resulted that took the public taste. As Mr. Monkhouse says, in 'British Contemporary Artists':

"The picture touched the dearest sentiments of the English, it appealed to their sense of beauty, to their affections, to their love of moral courage, and to their religious convictions. If Millais had thought it all out beforehand . . . he could not have chosen a subject more attractive to the visitors of the Royal Academy."

The type of picture once established was adhered to, and "The Huguenot" was followed by "The Proscribed Royalist," "The Order of Release," and "The Black Brunswicker." Gradually it dawned upon Millais that even this much of invention was more than was necessary, and that one figure and a title (if the figure were that of a pretty woman) would answer the purpose; and he painted "The Gambler's Wife" and "Yes or No." What did it matter? All he cared for himself was the model and the sleight-of-hand. "If I were a rich man," he said, "I would pay some one to paint pictures for me, and spend my time in putting high lights in the boots." His executive talent nearly reached the level of high art at times, and "The Yeoman of the Guard" and "Mrs. Bischoffsheim" are so brilliantly executed as to be nearly great. At worst it degenerated into a wormy, stringy handling that is distressing. On the other hand, his later attempts at grand art, such as "Jephthah" and "Victory, O Lord!" are lamentable failures. Better a hundred "Cherry Ripes" than one such Historical Picture. After all, there is subject enough in "Cherry Ripe" for a Sir Joshua, or even for a Velasquez, if only there were the artist eye to see it.

But if Millais was very little of an artist and only half a painter, he was an illustrator *par sang*. Trollope said that 'Orley Farm' was the best illustrated of any novel ever published, and probably he was right. Millais's merits and faults equally helped to make him a good illustrator, and in Trollope he found the man he was best fitted to illustrate. The author gave the ideas, and the artist found the forms; and the more he was occupied with sheer representation and the less he bothered about composition, the better. All Millais's illustrative work shows his remarkable fitness to become eye and hand to another man's brain. He did not have persistent visions of his own which came between himself and the page, to lead him, as they led Rossetti, into fantastic embroideries upon the text. What Millais saw in his reading was just what the average Englishman sees there, and that he put down quite clearly and comprehensively. In Trollope he found a man of his own type—an average Briton like himself—and we have Trollope's own word for it that Millais's drawings are an exact transcript of what the author meant.

There was one other field in which Millais's preoccupation with representation rather than art, and with fact rather than with aspect, was of service to him—that of portraiture. The very greatest portraits are works of art also, but there is a level at which artistic preoccupation hinders veracity. Millais will not rank with the greatest portrait-painters, but at least he did not allow style or line or tone to stand between him and a clear perception of the sitter. In his portraits of women and children he did, indeed, allow the desire of prettiness to master him; but in his best portraits of men he is earnest and veracious, and some of England's greatest men will probably be remembered as he has represented them.

The late President of the Royal Academy always knew what his public liked, and always gave it them, while he had sufficient skill as a technician to merit and to retain the respect of his professional rivals. He was far from a great artist, but he was a most industrious and honorable man, and probably deserved all that he received. If there were, perchance, truer artists who were neglected while he succeeded, they had their reward in the doing of their work and the hope of a posthumous immortality, even if their portraits do not hang in the Uffizi.

The 'Life and Letters' is somewhat confusingly written, skipping back and forth and sometimes giving contradictory accounts of the same event; but it succeeds, on the whole, in drawing a clear picture of the cheery, hearty, determined, straightforward, eminently British personality of the man. Mr. Baldry's unpretentious little volume is quite definite in its presentation of his view of the artist, a view which we only partially share. The larger book is profusely illustrated, perhaps too profusely for the greatest glory of Millais, yet it needs supplementing here and there by reproductions only to be found in the smaller. More than once the 'Life' gives a fragment of a picture only, without warning that it is not the whole, and in one instance this is set right by the other book. Both are needed, and, from the two, aided by a faculty of reading between as well as in the lines, a clear conception may be formed of the most thoroughly English of modern painters.

McCRADY'S SOUTH CAROLINA.

The History of South Carolina under the Royal Government, 1719-1776. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1899. Pp. xxviii, 847.

Mr. McCrady has continued, in the present volume, the work begun with so much success in his earlier book on 'South Carolina under the Proprietary Government.' The volume now issued, covering the period from the end of the proprietary administration until the establishment of independence, is similar in plan and execution to its predecessor, and has much the same characteristics as a piece of historical workmanship. There is the same wide investigation, the same wealth of local detail, and the same pronounced loyalty to the State. If the later work is less interesting than the earlier one, the reason is to be found, doubtless, in the more noticeable absence of striking situations in the period dealt with, and the less direct bearing of events upon the general course of our history; but the service has been painstakingly performed, and Mr. McCrady's volumes are pretty certain to remain the authoritative history of the South Carolina colony for some time to come.

The historian of a State of the American Union has presented to him a difficult task. Few States have what may be called individuality—few, that is to say, have passed through such experiences as to give them a distinctive and well-marked character, or to invest their annals with a general interest apart from that which attaches to the career of the nation. The political affairs of any State other than one's own are commonly not viewed as matters of general concern. In every-day thinking there is a marked tendency to merge the State, as a political organism, in the larger life of the nation, and to estimate the importance of State affairs by the relation they bear to the common life of the whole people, rather than as, in and of themselves, matters of distinct and permanent importance. There are, however, exceptions to the rule, and South Carolina is one of them. Largely, no doubt, because of its prominent position in the great discussions over slavery, nullification, and secession, South Carolina has come to be looked upon as one of the foremost of the Southern commonwealths, possessing a certain distinction of character and manner which has tended to make its citizens South Carolinians first and Americans afterwards. It is manifestly of great advantage, therefore, to the historian to have for his subject a political unit which stands out conspicuously among its companions, and does not need constantly to be disentangled from a mass of wider interests in which its own identity is largely lost.

The characteristics which, operating through nearly the whole period of its history, have combined to give to South Carolina its peculiar prominence, are its unique social life, its system of slavery, and its attitude towards constitutional interpretation. The first and last of these, already outlined in Mr. McCrady's earlier work, are traced with additional wealth of fact and illustration in the present volume, though without, we think, adding materially to the former presentation. More than any other colony, South Carolina developed, from the beginning, at once a social class and a social caste. The social and political importance of Charleston, as the centre and source of provincial life, was not markedly lessened when the back counties came to be settled; and the political turbulence of the new settlements, and their long-time clashing with the provincial administration, were legitimate outgrowths of the centralized control and pervading indifference to changing conditions, which had marked the colony from the first. One misses, in South Carolina history, the voice of the people, the widespread discussion of politics and men, the surge and ferment of a political life in which the rights of one were the concern of all, that fill so large a place in the annals of a colony like Massachusetts. What we have, instead, is the political activity of a small, compact, and assertive ruling class, intelligent, zealous, and patriotic, knit together by intermarriage and community of interests, and dominating by their wealth, their aggressiveness, and their solidarity the political life of the province. It is the presence of this class which insures, for the genealogical details with which Mr. McCrady's volume is thickly strewn, so general a local acceptance; and it was this governing class, at once the State and the rulers of the State, which, more than any other one thing, gave to South Carolina its striking political complexion, and made it, in a larger sphere, once the way was cleared for it, so powerful and impressive a political force.

So, too, though in lesser degree, with con-

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stitutional interpretation. Of the genesis of the strict-constructionist view of things, in the long struggle between the colony and the proprietors, Mr. McCrady has already given an acute and interesting exposition; and he does not add greatly to it in the volume before us. The times, however, had changed. With the transfer of the proprietary rights to the crown, the immediate occasion of difference was removed; and the disputes which soon began with the royal governors, while locally important, contributed little in the way of new principles of colonial opposition. As the breach with the mother country widened, however, the disposition to insist upon the letter as well as the spirit of colonial rights once more asserted itself; and the pretensions of King and Parliament came finally to be resisted in South Carolina on much the same lines as those on which the people had resisted the imposition of Locke's "Fundamental Constitutions."

The discussion of slavery in South Carolina, by a loyal son and prominent citizen of the State, could hardly fail to be of some importance; and Mr. McCrady's treatment of the topic, though brief, is of as much general interest as anything in his book. It was the distinction of South Carolina to be the only colony in which the negroes outnumbered the whites; and the horrors of its rice swamps, the severity of its slave code, and its devotion to slavery as a domestic institution worthy of all commendation, have been set forth in vivid colors by numerous writers. Bearing in mind the period of which he is treating, Mr. McCrady's statements do not tend to confirm the extreme views of slavery opponents. As he exhibits it, slavery in South Carolina was by no means unusually severe. The slave laws, while rigorous in terms, provided punishments for whites who should ill-treat, maim, or kill their slaves; and the evidence shows that the laws were enforced. While the large number of slaves emphasized the need of control, and doubtless gave to the customary slave code a degree of harshness not always found elsewhere, there does not seem to have been, in this early period, the pervading fear of negro uprisings sometimes represented; nor were the insurrections which occurred followed by any special increase of severity towards the slaves. A curious exhibition of confidence was given by the reënactment, in 1720, of a law of 1708 providing for the organization of a negro militia, and this on the heels of a recently attempted outbreak. As to the general condition and treatment of the slaves, there does not appear to have been any noticeable difference between South Carolina and the other colonies, save that the labor of rice cultivation was peculiarly exhausting, and shortened the average life and usefulness of the blacks.

It is partly, no doubt, because of its distinctive character, and partly because of its geographical location, that the history of South Carolina, during the sixty years covered by Mr. McCrady's volume, seems somewhat aside from the social and political life of the other colonies. About much of it there is an undeniable air of remoteness. Not until the Sugar Act and Stamp Act brought the beginning of the end, did South Carolina come into the close contact with the other continental colonies which ultimately made union possible; and, even then, one can but feel that the province follows rather than leads, and that the springs of organized resistance are elsewhere. The record, as here brought out, is as honorable as any; but South Carolina had not felt, or even imagined that it felt, the burden of restrictive parliamentary legislation as much as had some of its neighbors, and its incentive to protest and revolt was, in consequence, not so keen. As elsewhere, too, the aggressiveness of the Revolutionary party met, at first, but a languid response from the majority of the people; while the arbitrary enforcement of the non-importation agreement aroused the opposition of those who, while not averse to ultimate independence, shrank from an independence so rudely ushered in.

Mr. McCrady's book has, as we have said, the general traits of its predecessor. It has also, in the main, the same limitations and defects. Like most elaborate State histories, there is much attention to local happenings, and considerable allotment of space to matters of antiquarian interest. The strict chronological arrangement makes against the interest of the narrative, and renders it difficult, at times, to follow the main course of events. To any but an ardent South Carolinian, the reading of the book can hardly be other than a task. It is unfortunate, too, that the author should not have thought it worth while to assist the reader by some of the mechanical helps commonly thought essential to good bookmaking. In a volume of 800 pages, there are no chapter headings except dates, and no page headings save the repeated title of the book. There is, however, a good table of contents, which the earlier volume wanted, and a full index. The citations of authorities lack uniformity, and show occasional errors, due, apparently, to hasty proofreading. These are minor blemishes, however, and do not detract seriously from the merits of a work which can unhesitatingly be pronounced a valuable and needed addition to American historical literature.

The Stones of Paris in History and Letters. By Benjamin Ellis Martin and Charlotte M. Martin. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

There is, we are confident, no ironical purpose in the publication of two volumes which, on the eve of the Paris Exposition of 1900, declare, in the opening sentence of their introduction, that the work is in no wise intended for such as see in the Elysium of good Americans nothing more than a "city of shows." The magazine articles of which it is composed have already given prospective tourists some inkling of the *Paris inconnu, négligé*, which may be visited with profit at any hour between the *café au lait* of early morning and the *apéritif* of late afternoon. More comprehensive, as well as more ambitious, than Mr. Hare's useful guidebook to the antiquities of Paris, the present work seeks to vivify those fascinating streets by repeopling them with notable personages of history and fiction, and thus, if we may be allowed the figure, of masking the odor of modern asphalt with the aroma of historical and literary suggestion.

The topographical knowledge shown in this book is singularly wide and detailed. Hardly a step taken by its authors between Père Lachaise and the Bois, between the Butte Montmartre and the Observatoire, but opens up a vista on the interesting past; and, though making no profession of exhaustiveness, the long succession of stories contained in these volumes omits very little of permanent value to the completeness of the retrospect. We can readily imagine the pleasure of the intelligent traveller who, on substituting these volumes for the traditional red-covered handbook, discovers that the "Pension Vauquer" still exists in an objective tangibility as real as that of "Les Jardies."

Secure though they are on their own ground, the collaborators seem to have been less wary in their verification of assertions along the neighboring byways. This applies to fact and opinion concerning certain literary notabilities whose haunts are visited in these wanderings. Thus, in a chapter on "The Scholars' Quarter" (i., 93), it is said that Calvin "was induced by a daring relative to read the Bible, and the ultimate result was Calvinism, as it has been interpreted by his bigoted disciples," without any indication as to the direction and degree of the alleged divergence. We were under the impression that the 'Institution' is still the basis of Calvinistic theology. The well-known remark of Voltaire to Congreve, during the Frenchman's visit to England (1726), is here (i., 197) reported as having been addressed to Wycherley, who died in 1715. It may be true to declare that "slight trace" is to be found of Jean-Jacques Rousseau in the Paris of to-day," but it argues a misconception of his influence to add that signs of it are equally absent "in the minds of men of to-day" (i., 206). On the same page we read that Rousseau sent his five children successively to the foundling hospital, "according to his own statement, which is our only reason for doubting that he did it." The testimony of a literary man regarding his own actions stands, it would appear, on a different footing from that of an ordinary witness in a court of law. We should further like to know on what authority it is said that of music "Rousseau knew nothing, except by the intuition of genius" (i., 206). Again, when reference is made (ii., 12) to the hissing of Sainte-Beuve by the students of the Collège de France (1854), it should be noted that, though the critic ascribed the misadventure to purely political motives, his own change of front towards the Romantic movement had aroused literary hostility in many of its younger energumens.

Errors, or slips of minor importance, for the most part easily avoidable, are noted in the following instances: Lancres (for Langres) as the birthplace of Diderot may be a misprint; but Saint Thomas of Aquinas is to us a new designation of the Angelic Doctor who immortalized Aquino. Chateaubriand's name never appears with a circumflex accent in any sound French authority. Lamartine, with all his slipshod style, was surely not guilty of exalting Charlotte Corday's heroic crime in such a barbarism as "l'ange de *l'assassination*." In magazine articles of this character it may seem hypercritical to insist on details of style and expression; still, when we read (i., 60) that Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, "loved maids-of-honor, and, indeed, paintings in general," the ambiguity of this quotation might, we should think, have provoked some comment from its too conscientious transcribers. When the latter give loose rein to their fancy, the reader may chance to be surprised with such a paraphrase of Mirabeau's celebrated aphorism (ii., 8) as the following: "A volcano is not to be squirted

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cold by rose water." Given a small-sized volcano and unlimited rose-water, we should like to try the experiment.

But these volumes are, in other respects, an excellent means of preparation for an unconventional tour about Paris. They bring before one's very eyes a crowd of details, which, interesting though they are, find little space in guide-books, and none at all in the memory of the most garrulous courier; while the illustrative photographs and woodcuts give to description and narrative the welcome addition of concrete reality of presentation.

The History of the Great Boer Trek, and the Origin of the South African Republics. By the late Hon. Henry Cloete. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

Side-Lights on South Africa. By Roy Devereux. London: Sampson Low, Marston & & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.75. 1899.

The Hon. Henry Cloete was Commissioner for Natal in 1843-4, and, before and after that date, was prominent in the affairs of that colony. Between 1852-5 he delivered a number of lectures before a literary society in Pietermaritzburg, the substance of which is now reproduced by his grandson in this volume. At the present crisis, this statement of the origin of the conflict between the English and the Dutch is of no little value. It is, of course, free from the distorting passions which affect most of the publications now appearing on South African affairs: and while Mr. Cloete was a firm believer in the "paramountcy" of Great Britain, he gave a very fair account of the events that caused the Boers from time to time to submit and to rebel.

Mr. Cloete laid emphasis on the fact that the Boers were a pastoral people and a slaveholding people, and if it is considered what degree of civilization is attained before agriculture is regularly practised, much light is thrown on their history. When England acquired the Cape Colony, the Boers had been accustomed to receive grants of land for their "laagers," measuring from ten to thirty square miles. This policy not only removed the settlers from the influence of government, but also resulted in constant encroachment on the lands of the native tribes. Hence there was incessant friction on the frontier, and the British Colonial Office alternately defended the "pioneers," as such aggressive settlers have been called in this country, for the sake of the endangered Cape Colony, and, when the responsibility became too great, or the Government changed in England, took the part of the outraged natives. So things went till the great Kafir rising in 1834. This was put down by the British Government, which, however, refused to allow the claims for compensation made by the Boers, and the latter in disgust migrated in great numbers to Natal. From similar causes the trek into the Transvaal followed.

Into these particulars we need not enter further, but those who wish to understand the South African situation may well consult this authority, whose simple and slightly archaic style makes his lectures pleasant reading. We note that the account of one of the earliest defeats inflicted by the Boers on English troops, almost sixty years ago, reads like the reports now coming to hand of the recent surprises. We may also note, in the interest of historical accuracy, that Mr. Cloete was the person to whom some rather celebrated counsel was given. On his departure from England some one, whom he describes as "an eminent special pleader of Lincoln's Inn," said to him, "Now, Mr. Cloete, you have entered the law, and may possibly one day be elevated to the judicial bench. Allow me, therefore, to give you one friendly advice. Whenever you have to give your judgments, abstain as much as possible from giving your reasons; for your judgments may often be perfectly right, and yet your reasons altogether wrong." It only remains to determine the name of the "eminent special pleader" in order to put this often misquoted story on the footing that its merits deserve.

There is much good description of scenery in 'Side Lights on South Africa,' the authoress of which was correspondent of the *Morning Post*. Nor are her accounts of political and economic conditions undeserving of attention, her British prejudices being not offensively displayed. Her testimony is positive as to the unwillingness of the British Outlanders to accept the franchise in the Transvaal Republic. Their discontent was due to the fact that they chafed under Boer rule, and were determined to be free from it. Mrs. Devereux mentions incidentally numerous circumstances which show that it was not the oppressiveness of the Boer government which was the real grievance, but the fact that it was not British government. Of course, the exactions and restrictions of the Transvaal government are assigned as the cause of discontent, but there is a lack of specific charges. Concerning the high rates on freight, it is to be remembered that the Cape Colony exacts a heavy transit duty on merchandise passing through its limits.

Another fact mentioned by this writer deserves consideration. Mr. Rhodes's Chartered Company has the right to take one-half of the vendor's interest in every company organized for gold-mining. It has generally contented itself with 30 per cent., and to favored concerns it grants easier terms. Were such exactions practised at Johannesburg, the English press would ring with them. Mr. Rhodes has also formed a railroad combination intended to force the transportation of goods over his lines, instead of by the far shorter route by the east coast. In Kimberley Mr. Rhodes is an absolute ruler. The native workmen, when not below the surface of the earth, are confined in a strongly guarded pen. The whole development of Rhodesia may be said to depend on what is there called a proper supply of laborers, but which is really the maintenance of slavery.

On the whole, Mrs. Devereux's book is well written, and contains a good deal of information. Being made up of newspaper letters, it would be unreasonable to demand a very systematic arrangement of its contents.

L'Education au point de vue sociologique. By J. Elslander. Paris: H. Le Soudier. 1899.

M. Elslander is not the first to tell us that our system of education is all wrong, or to point out a road to its regeneration. His book has a certain vigor, thoroughness, and scientific air, however, which separate it from much that is written on the subject. While he shows faults in detail, he does not allow the reader to suppose, even for a little while, that these faults are attached to a structure fundamentally sound: the structure itself is the worst fault of all, the inevitable parent of all the rest. And this is so because our whole system of education, physical, intellectual, and moral, assumes certain conditions of society and educates children to conform to those conditions. Now *conformity* is the one word with which M. Elslander will have nothing to do in education, so far as it applies to anything but "Nature." The forces of "Nature" are beneficent in their effect upon the child always and everywhere, but restraint imposed by the hand or will of man is inevitably bad. The child's natural impulses are invariably good until they are perverted by impertinent interference in the name of education. These impulses themselves, not a predetermined programme, should be the guide in education; we should follow where they may lead, not try to make the child what we wish him to be. Develop every aptitude displayed, with no curbing whatever, and develop it just when and where it is displayed. All interference with the child's personality, all bumping against its egoism, is sure to do mental and moral injury.

The average reader will hardly fail to wonder whether M. Elslander has any children of his own, and, if so, just how he succeeds practically in steering as absolutely clear of conflict with their egoism as his book demands. Is it their natural disposition to want their faces washed and their clothing changed at about the right time? Certainly a large proportion of parents find serious and frequent occasion for conflict with the egoism of their children along this line. But possibly our notions as to clean faces and clothes are merely a product of a perverted and perverting civilization, not a part of the eternal fitness of things. Seriously, when one proposes absolute non-interference with natural impulses in education, and insists that his plan must be put in operation from earliest infancy, such points as these become of the deepest importance, and we can hardly let M. Elslander off from the charge of dodging when he ignores them.

Much as we should like to be convinced that there is a way to bring up children without any of the conflict that is usually so disagreeable to both sides, we must say frankly that this book justifies no such conviction. There are parts of it, however, which we wish that most parents and teachers might read. The thoughtful observer knows that many a child is curbed and fretted unnecessarily and harmfully in the home, that much of the work in the primary schools is stale and uninteresting and unprofitable. He knows that much of the moral instruction given is capricious and contradictory, that many of the answers to the questioning of morally perplexed children are mere evasions. He is well aware that the exercise of discipline has too often the practical effect of cultivating in the child the idea that it is all a matter of superior strength—that his own turn will come when he, too, has grown strong, and then the account will be evened up. The thoughtful observer knows all this, we say; but not all of us who have the responsibility of young children upon us, whether as parents or teachers, are thoughtful observers, and M. Elslander has put these things and others of the same nature in such a way that the reader can hardly pass lightly over them.

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And their rehearsal is likely to have all the more effect when the reader sees how easily they may be turned into plausible premises for conclusions fundamentally repugnant to what he is apt to consider as the fundamental elements of a sound social organization. Or, to put the matter in another way, the author has given us an extremely suggestive book in a field where genuine, earnest thought is sorely needed; and he who does this does often a better service than one who writes a sound logical treatise which we may read without any mental or moral shock, and then neglect without any compunction of conscience.

The volume before us does not pursue the subject beyond the earlier years of the child's development. Of course so radical a revolution as is proposed needs to be elucidated clear through, and the author promises to complete the work in another volume.

E. T. A. Hoffmann's Sämtliche Werke, in 15 Bänden. Herausgegeben, mit einer biographischen Einleitung, von Eduard Grisebach. Leipzig: Max Hesse. 1899.

One of the most marked tendencies of contemporary European life might be designated as the return to Romanticism. What is Nietzsche's "Uebermensch" but a Wilhelm Heinse or Friedrich Schlegel redivivus? What is Maeterlinck but a new Novalis? What does this revelling of nearly all the most recent painters, poets, and dramatists in hazy, capricious, abrupt, symbolical conceptions—not to say hallucinations—mean but a reaction against the self-satisfied common sense of the Bismarckian age, an essentially Romantic attempt to go back of the world of appearances to the world of the great unknown, to the fleeting shadows and the unfathomable night of the infinite? Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that renewed popularity should have been brought to a writer who, after having profoundly influenced the imagination of the contemporaries of Heine, Victor Hugo, and Carlyle, seemed to be unable to hold his own in the realistic atmosphere of the last generation, a writer who may fairly be called the master, among the Romanticists, in the gruesome, erratic, and morbidly fantastic—E. T. A. Hoffmann, author of 'The Golden Pot' and 'The Devil's Elixir.'

It is only fair to add forthwith that this formula does not by any means express the whole of Hoffmann's literary character. It is a significant fact that three of the most artistic representatives of modern German realism—Friedrich Hebbel, Heinrich Seidel, and Gerhart Hauptmann—testify to the great stimulus which they received from him, and it is not too much to say that his true mental make-up consists of a most subtle combination of visionary, somnambulist imaginings with an unusually shrewd and wide-awake observation of actual life. To have demonstrated this double quality of Hoffmann's work constitutes the principal merit of an account of his life which was published in 1894 by Dr. Georg Ellinger ('E. T. A. Hoffmann, sein Leben and seine Werke,' Hamburg: L. Voss), the first biography of Hoffmann worthy of the name. Ellinger shows convincingly that Hoffmann's whole literary career was the continual struggle of a most sensitive artistic nature against the philistinism and æsthetic obtuseness of commonplace surroundings. Had his path been freer, had he not been obliged to fight first against desperate need, later against the miserable literary coteries of provincial towns, and finally against the narrow-minded bureaucracy of the Metternich régime, his literary development would probably have been much more normal, and less marred by intellectual eccentricities and antics. As it was, these eccentricities seemed the only possible outlet for his creative energy, and we can only regret that, instead of dissipating this energy in so many different directions, as story-teller, critic, composer, conductor, designer, fresco-painter, and jurist, he should not have concentrated it upon literature alone. Surely, he had the stuff in him for a great classical humorist; and some of his characters at least—above all, the melancholy, thoughtful, impassioned, and inspired Kapellmeister Kreisler, in whom Hoffmann seems to have embodied the best of his own self—take rank with the finest of Jean Paul's creations.

The present edition of Hoffmann's collected works opens with a biographical introduction by Eduard Grisebach, which, while adding hardly anything to Ellinger's book, gives a convenient summing up of its main results, and helps to bring out Hoffmann's personality by wisely selected passages from his correspondence. The works themselves are marshalled in chronological order from the 'Phantasiestücke in Callot's Manier' to the 'Neueste Schicksale eines abenteuerlichen Mannes' and other posthumous fragments; while the last volume contains a number of essays and sketches hitherto hidden in out-of-the-way periodicals or newspapers. Of the illustrations, the eight engravings after Callot, which are taken from the first edition of the 'Prinzessin Brambilla,' are particularly commendable. Altogether, this seems one of the most attractive and useful editions of Hoffmann that have thus far appeared.

The German Sectarians of Pennsylvania, 1708-1742. A Critical and Legendary History of the Ephrata Cloister and the Dunkers. By Julius Friedrich Sachse. Philadelphia: Printed for the Author. 1899. Octavo, xx+506 pages.

Since 1881, when Pennypacker gave an account of the Ephrata Martyr-Book in the *Pennsylvania Magazine*, interest in Ephrata and Ephratana has increased with wonderful acceleration. It was soon ascertained that about fifty German books and pamphlets, previously unknown to collectors of Americana, had been printed during the eighteenth century by the Dunker Community of Ephrata, and a bookseller of Lancaster, Pa., issued catalogues offering some of these imprints at high prices. Seidensticker, in 1883, published the first comprehensive history of this singular sect, and gave the first critical analysis of its mystic theology. So great was the interest that Hark in 1889 was led to publish a translation of the 'Chronicon Ephratense.' Other investigators, chief among whom was Sachse, travelled from house to house through Lancaster and Lebanon Counties, and discovered manuscripts of much value, especially a roster of the celibates and a diary of the sisters' cloister. In 1892 a lot of type was turned up by the plough, and in 1898 more was found in the cellar of one of the old community houses. Letters and pamphlets have been discovered in European archives, and many legends handed down by family tradition have been reduced to writing. From all these sources Sachse has produced a book of great interest to students of the religious history of colonial times. It is profusely illustrated with facsimiles of autographs, with initial letters and tail-pieces from the Ephrata manuscripts and books, as also with twenty-eight plates of portraits and buildings, and thirty-eight facsimiles of title-pages of rare books.

Seidensticker's work on the Ephrata Community ('Ephrata: Eine amerikanische Klostergeschichte,' Cincinnati, 1889) has never received the recognition it deserves. It is remarkable for its characterization of personages, is written from a broad, philosophic standpoint, and is invaluable for its thorough analysis of the mystic theosophy promulgated by the magnetic Conrad Beissel. The monks and nuns of the Ephrata cloisters are set forth as actors on a stage where the play was real to them, while to Seidensticker it was merely an exhibition of human nature, guided and swayed by the impulses of a peculiar religion and the circumstances of environment. To him the monastic community was an interesting phenomenon, that rose, flourished, and died, without exerting material influence on the morals or theology of the people of Pennsylvania. Sachse's work, on the other hand, makes Ephrata the central feature of German influence in Pennsylvania during the eighteenth century. Mennonites, Lutherans, Reformed, Schwenkfelders, and Moravians are mentioned and briefly discussed, but these revolve like satellites around the central planet of the Seventh-day Dunkers at Ephrata. Sachse excels Seidensticker in detailed descriptions. The rise of the cloister buildings is minutely explained; scenery is painted vividly; we hear the tolling of the midnight bell and the whistling of the winter wind. His knowledge of bibliography is wide and thorough; matters of family relationship are set forth painstakingly, and numerous legends appear now for the first time in print. Yet it must be said that, in characterization, in critical analysis, and in a certain appropriate philosophic sarcasm, Seidensticker's modest work holds the higher place.

In truth, the influence of Conrad Beissel and his teachings was but slight. Even in the height of the prosperity of the cloister its celibate inmates numbered only about eighty, and the total number of adherents to the faith was probably less than 300. The Mennonites were counted by thousands, and the same was true of the Lutherans and Reformed. The Moravians, though few in number, exerted an influence, on both the colony and the Indians, beside which that of Ephrata was insignificant. Ephrata deserves attention as a phenomenon, both social and religious, but so isolated was it that its work had become almost forgotten in the early years of the nineteenth century. Its quaint monastic life, its peculiar Biblical theosophy, and its publications, all of which were due to its founder, Conrad Beissel, have made it, however, of greater interest than its actual influence would warrant. He who likes to lose himself in reverie over the deeds and thoughts of a cloister life of a century and a half ago will find full opportunity when reading the charming chapters of Sachse.

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The book has its defects, like everything in this imperfect world. The principal title is misleading, but this, perhaps, is corrected by the sub-title. The statement that Ef-rā-taaw indicates the pronunciation of Ephrata does not agree with our experience. Errors of the printer are found on pages 354 and 414, the latter being inexcusable, as it occurs in a well-known passage of Scripture. Several statements that appear for the first time are not properly justified; for example, we should be glad to know the authority for the details of the initiation said to have been practised by the Zionitic brotherhood, as also the authority for designating the sisterhood as the "Order of Spiritual Virgins." These points will perhaps be explained in the second volume, which is to cover the period 1743-1800; in this period the Ephrata publications appeared, the community attained its maximum prosperity, then declined and died.

Text-Book of Vertebrate Zoölogy. By J. S. Kingsley, Professor of Zoölogy in Tufts College. Henry Holt & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 447; illustrated.

Text-books and manuals compiled from publications of original research bring the rapidity of scientific progress forcibly to mind. If at all comprehensive, as they leave the press they are behind the times, which is the more to be regretted if contents and presentation are of particular value. The present work, one of the best of its kind, is not an exception; and, beyond the unavoidable omission of many later advances, it may also be criticised for features that could readily have been changed with advantage to both author and readers. We refer to matter selected many years ago to which more recent modifications have not been applied. The classification, likewise, is not up to present demands, and will hasten displacement in favor of works better adapted to modern records. Another drawback to usefulness is the omission of bibliographical references and bibliography. Desire to examine the sources of information necessitates transfer of attention to works less chary of hints that all of vertebrate zoölogy is not included in their pages. Opportunities for fault-finding are extended by mistakes in identification, incorrect illustrations, and credits wrongfully given or omitted entirely—the last not so objectionable, perhaps, in a case like that of a skull with bisected maxillaries and obliterated lachrymals. The proofreader may be charged with slips like a "rental portal system," a "ductus curvierii," or a "See Lamprey," but a greater amount of abnormal orthography in a particular section, repeated in the index, tells of unfamiliarity with the subjects, thus: "Malapterus," "Hyperotretia," "Tutidanus," "Champosaurus," "Opoderodonta," "Telosaurus," "Sphrynidae," "Chordediles," etc. Occasional inexact statements are to be noted, as in case of the snakes, for instance.

Comparatively, the errors are few and of minor importance. Averaging the entire volume, this is a text-book of a high degree of excellence; it is better in the half pertaining to vertebrate morphology, containing the author's specialties of investigation, and less to be commended in that relating to classification of vertebrates. Prof. Kingsley's long experience as an instructor has enabled him to bring together in the best shape for teaching a great amount of material of which teachers and pupils will be glad and prompt to avail themselves.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, W. The Diuturnal Theory of the Earth. New York: Myra Andrews & E. G. Stevens. $3.50.
Biographical Sketch of Major-General John Sedgwick. Privately printed.
Brière, G., and Caron, P. Répertoire Méthodique de l'Histoire Moderne et Contemporaine de la France pour 1898. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Edition.
Cartwright, Julia. Beatrice d'Este of Milan. A Study of the Renaissance. London: J. M. Dent.
Catherwood, Mary H. Spanish Peggy. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Crane, F. The Religion of To-morrow. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Crowninshield, Mrs. S. San Isidro. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Eddy, Sarah J. Friends and Helpers. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Firth, C. H. The Clarke Papers. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co.
Gage, Matilda J. Woman, Church and State. New York: Truth Seeker Co. 75c.
Gannett, Rev. W. C. Of Making One's Self Beautiful. Boston: James H. West Co. $1.
Hay, J. Sir Walter Scott. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Hayes, J. R. Swarthmore Idylls. Wilmington, Del.: J. M. Rogers Press. 75c.
Hazell's Annual for 1900. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney. 3s. 6d.
Hennessey, J. D. A Lost Identity. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Herford, Oliver. An Alphabet of Celebrities. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Hobart, Mary E. The Secret of the Rothschilds. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 10c.
Hoby, Sir T. The Book of the Courtier. From the Italian of Count B. Castiglione. London: David Nutt, 18s.
Holden, E. S. Elementary Astronomy. Henry Holt & Co.
Holmes, T. R. Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul. Macmillan. $6.00.
Hooker, John. Some Reminiscences of a Long Life. Hartford, Conn.: Belknap & Warfield. $1.75.
Howells, W. D. Their Silver Wedding Journey. Harpers. 2 vols. $5.
Hudson, T. J. The Divine Pedigree of Man. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Kipling, R. From Sea to Sea. Letters of Travel. Scribners.
Knowlson, T. S. The Art of Thinking. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. Judea from Cyrus to Titus. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Lawrence, Ida E. Day-Dreams. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Lee, Prof. G. C., and Carroll, Prof. M. Orators of Ancient Greece. Putnams. $3.50.
Letters of David Ricardo to Hutches Trower and Others. Edited by J. Bonar and J. H. Hollander. Henry Frowde. 7s. 6d.
Macaulay, G. C. The Complete Works of John Gower. Vol. I. The French Works. Henry Frowde. 16s.
Meyer, Prof. O. E. The Kinetic Theory of Gases. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Nabuco, J. Um Estadista do Imperio: Nabuco de Araujo. Sua Vida, sua Opinioes, sua Epoca. 3 vols. Paris: H. Garnier.
Nova Anthologia Oxoniensis. Translations into Greek and Latin Verse. Edited by Prof. R. Ellis and Prof. A. D. Godley. Henry Frowde.
Origins and Issues. London: The Chiswick Press. 3s. 6d.
Peaslee, J. B. Thoughts and Experiences in and Out of School. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings. $1.50.
Phillips, W. S. Just About a Boy. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Rawnsley, Rev. H. D. Sonnets in Switzerland and Italy. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Ripper, W. Steam-Engine Theory and Practice. Longmans, Green & Co.
Sawyer, Edith A. Mary Cameron. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co.
Shakespeare, W. King Richard II. Cassells. 10c.
Shelby, Annie B. Standard Whist. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.
Sherratt, Harriott W. Mexican Vistas. Rand, McNally & Co.
Statham, Rev. S. P. H. The History of the Castle, Town, and Port of Dover. Longmans, Green & Co.
Taylor, E. R. Moods and Other Verses. San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard. $1.25.
Thorold, W. J. Near the Throne. Meyer Bros. & Co.
Trübner, Dr. K., and Mentz, Dr. F. Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

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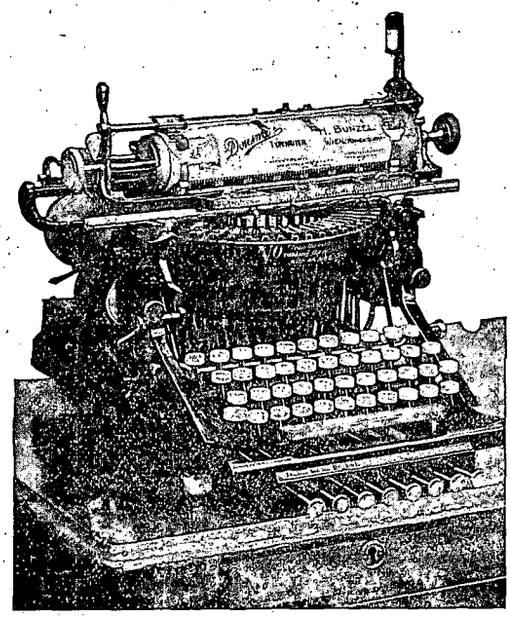

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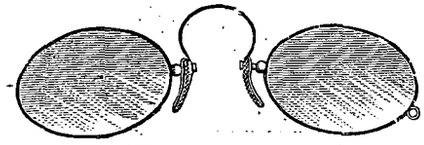

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